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NEW
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GEOGRAPHY

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PREFACE.



Norwegian.

GEOGRAPHY is in reality one of the most important subjects taught in school, but it has been degraded in the past to the memorizing of lists of names of places, coupled with their location. This exercise was the most utterly barren of all the processes of bad teaching.

Humboldt, Guyot, Geikie, Huxley, Harris, and Parker have placed Geography on a higher plane, and have made it the true basis of the sciences most intimately related to man's physical existence.

Physically, the earth is studied in this Geography in such a way as to show why some parts of the earth are fertile and some barren. The student will learn not merely that large portions of Northern Africa and Central Asia are deserts, but why they are deserts.

He will find not only that there are great salt lakes or marshes in a large portion of Australia, in the mountain plateaus of Asia and North America, and between Europe and Asia, but he will learn the causes of these conditions.

Structural geography is made the basis of the book, but political geography receives very full attention.

The height and shape of the World Ridge and the direction of the winds determine to a large extent the rainfall in different places, and civilization absolutely depends for the location of its centres of effort and population on rainfall. The very shape of the land, its fertility, and its continual transformations depend most largely on rainfall.



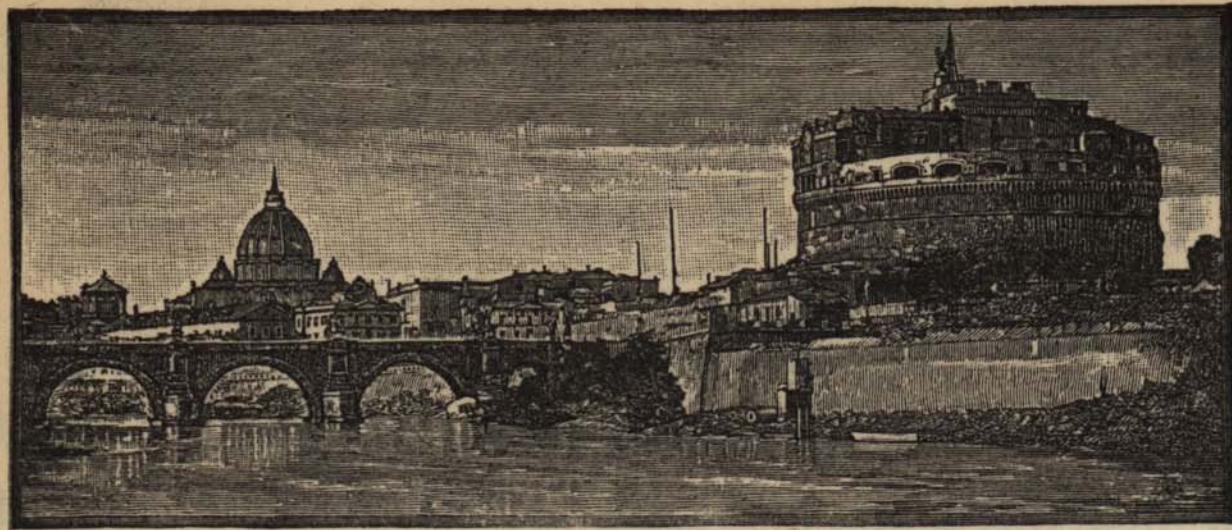
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Esquimaux.

All the causes that affect the earth as man's home are presented briefly and in logical order; the influences that break down the highlands and carry them often thousands of miles to form level countries—those simple processes that have been going on for thousands of years and are still actively going on—the methods by which barren lands are made productive; the many circumstances that affect climate; the influence of the ocean and its currents, of the winds and the mountains; the seasons and their causes; are discussed and illustrated so clearly that the child cannot fail to understand them.

Special attention is paid to the vegetation and to the animals of all parts of the world.



On the Tiber.

tions, commerce, etc., follow in logical order.

The maps, relief and political, are brought down to date, and are produced in the most perfect style of modern art.

The illustrations are the finest ever used in any Canadian school book, and they cannot fail to give clear and definite conceptions in regard to the most important elements of true geographical study.

The Map Studies form a very important feature of the book. Instead of giving large amounts of printed information about boundaries, rivers, capes, islands, peninsulas, etc., to be committed to memory or studied from the letter-press, the student is guided in the independent study of maps by carefully chosen questions. The difference between the old plan and the new is based on the central principles of the new education.

The Review Questions at the end of the book will guide both teachers and pupils in the intelligent and related study of the information contained in the letter-press.

The short section relating to the British Empire is of special value since the closer unity of the motherland and the colonies has become a vital question.

Much of the merely reference matter usually found in the body of a geography, has been placed at the end of the book.

This book is based on the excellent Geographies written by Alex. Everett Frye. The maps have been prepared under the supervision of G. M. Dawson, C.M.G., LL.D., F.R.S., Head of the Geological Survey of Canada.

For many of the illustrations on Canadian subjects the publishers are indebted to Messrs. Notman & Son, the well-known photographers; Canadian Pacific Railway, and others.

Then, when the child has been logically prepared for the study of man himself, the different races of men are presented, not in the old formal, lifeless way, but in such a way as to make the child see the men, women and children of different races and countries as they really appear in their every-day life and occupations. Governments, religions, produc-



Arab House.

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THE EARTH.

INTRODUCTION.

Geography treats of the earth as the home of man.

This book describes the earth as our home.

We ought to know a great deal about the earth, because we live on it and use many of its products.

The earth supplies us with food, clothing and all other useful things. Do you not wish to know where wheat and corn grow?—where grassy plains are covered with cattle, horses and sheep?—where trees are cut down, floated to the mills and sawed into lumber?—where coal, iron ore and granite are taken out of the earth?

All these products, and many more, are found in various parts of the Dominion of Canada, our own country, but some of the things which we use are raised by people in other lands.

From this book we are to learn what kinds of countries those people live in, how they dress, what work they do, what they buy of us, and what they sell to us.

We shall also learn why the same kinds of products are not found in all parts of the earth.

Our study will lead us to the cold land of the Lapps, where the sun shines low in the sky for several weeks each summer without setting. In that region, the warm season is too short to ripen much grain, but the flesh, milk and skins of reindeer supply food and clothing.

In other cold parts of the earth, there are vast fields of ice and snow, upon which Eskimos hunt the seal or the polar bear. How different is their life from ours! They see no grain ripening in fields, no cattle grazing in pastures, no fruit hanging on trees.

This book describes wide regions of shifting sand, where no rain falls and no plants grow, except near a few springs. There the people travel mostly on the backs of camels.



Do you know how tea leaves are dried and how silk is woven into fine cloth? You will learn how, when you read about the yellow people in Japan and China.

There are warm lands where coffee berries and many kinds of spices grow. Do you not wish to learn about the people who send us coffee, cloves and nutmegs? Every day, as we study this book and look at its pictures, we shall learn something about the earth,—its forms of land and water, its plants, its animals, or its people.

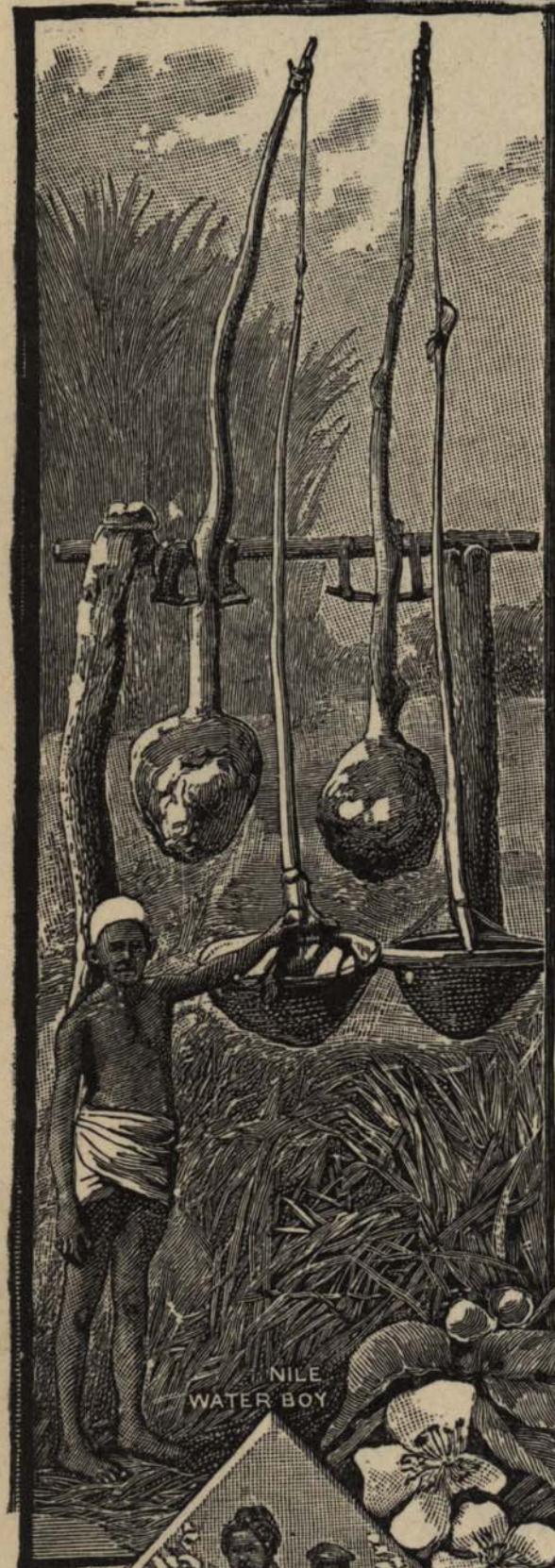
There are no studies that you will find more interesting than the study of the wonderful changes that are constantly taking place in the conditions around us. You will learn in this book why the seasons change as they do, and why day and night follow each other regularly.

You will understand, after reading this book, why, in some parts of the earth, it is always extremely hot, while in other parts there are always snow and ice.

You will find, too, the causes of winds, and rain, and why, in some parts of the earth, winds blow regularly in the same directions, and how it is that some places have a great deal of rain, while in other places very little rain ever falls.

The tides, and the great currents or streams in the oceans are explained; and the kinds of animals and plants that are found in different countries, are described.

You will see, in the many beautiful pictures, how people dress in different countries, how they travel, and what kind of houses they live in.





THE EARTH, ITS PRODUCTS, AND INHABITANTS.

1. Form and Size of the Earth.

The earth is a great ball of land and water, surrounded by air.

We see so small a part of the earth at a time that it does not look like a ball, but there are many proofs that the earth is round. Here are a few of them:

1. Many persons have gone around the earth.
2. As ships sail out to sea, their hulls are first lost to sight, and last of all their highest sails.
3. When travellers go day after day towards the north or the south, new stars rise over the horizon before them, while the stars behind sink beneath the horizon.
4. Sometimes the earth moves between the sun and the moon and casts a shadow on the

moon. The edge of this shadow always looks like part of a circle.

The great body of salt water which surrounds the land is called the *sea*. Various parts of the sea are known as *oceans*. The oceans lie in broad hollows on the earth.

The earth is so large that the distance from side to side, through the centre, is nearly 8,000 miles. The greatest distance around the earth is about 25,000 miles. Many millions of people live on the earth, and yet a large part of the land is not used.

If a train of cars were to travel day and night at the rate of thirty miles an hour, how long would it take to go 25,000 miles?

The best globe to use in school is an 8-inch globe, because on this globe an inch in any direction will approximately represent 1,000 miles.



Map showing the World Ridge.

2. The Land and the Sea.

The greater part of the earth is a mass of rock. On the land most of the rock is covered with soil. Fine mud or *ooze*, covers the rock under the sea.

Many parts of the land do not rise very high above the sea, but other parts are lofty and rugged. Some mountains rise higher than most of the clouds which we see,—even four or five miles into the air.

Most parts of the sea *near the land* are shallow. Far from the shores the sea is in many places two miles deep, and in some places the bottom is four or five miles below the surface.

The land and the surface of the sea have light by day and darkness by night. They have also warm and cold seasons. No sunshine

The observer, in this cut, is supposed to be elevated over the British Isles. Part of South America and the whole of Australia are shown beyond the hemisphere.

reaches the deep parts of the sea. The deep water is always cold and dark.

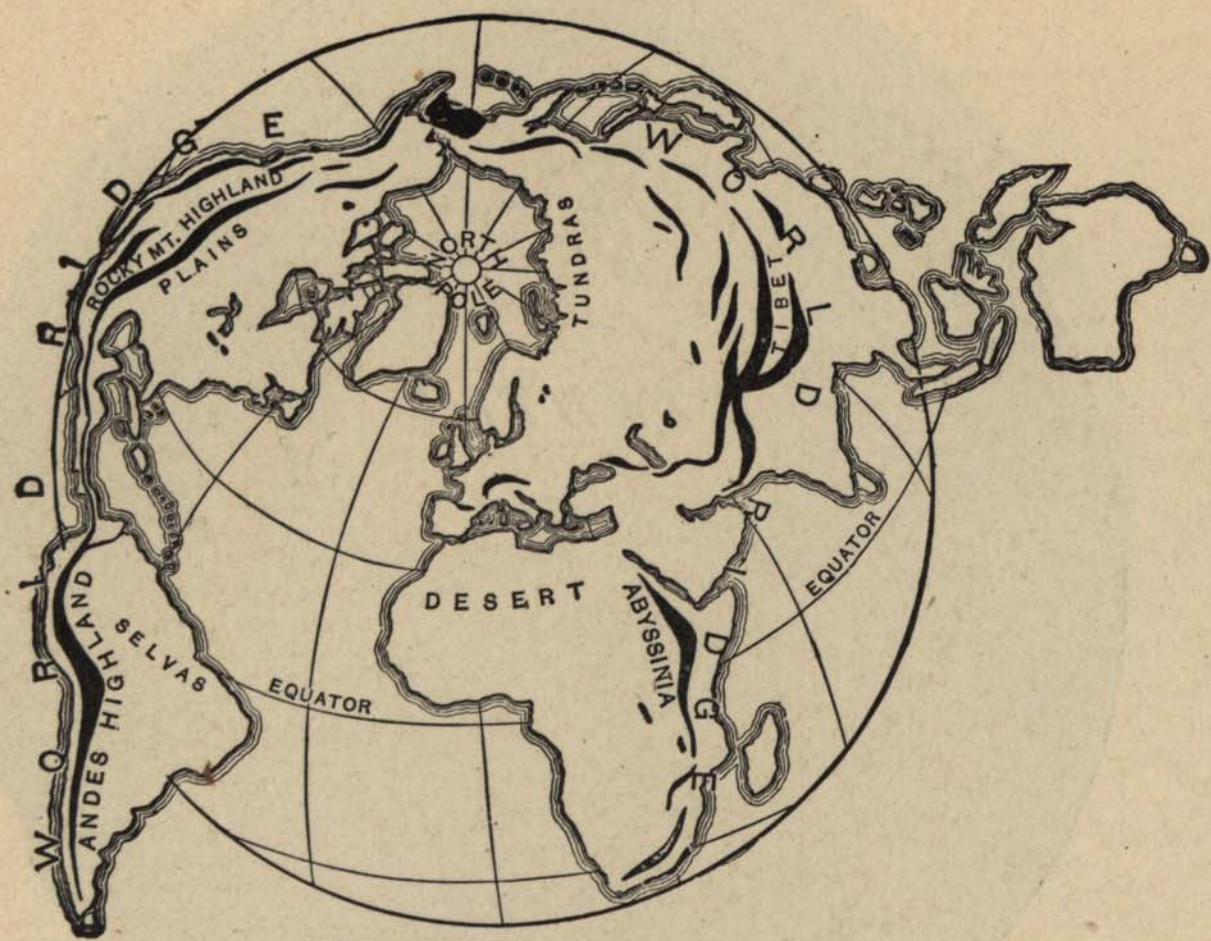
The land has many valleys and mountains, but a large part of the sea-bottom is a great smooth plain.

3. The World Ridge.

The land is not evenly distributed over the earth. Most of it is north of the equator, and therefore much nearer the north pole than the south pole.

About one fourth of the earth's surface is land,—the rest is water. Only a small part of the surface, south of the equator, is land. The sea is not wholly cut into separate oceans by the land, but it spreads in one large body around it.

Through the great bodies of land, we can trace a long chain of highlands, somewhat in the shape of a horseshoe. We will call this chain of highlands the *world ridge*, or the *primary highland of the world*. The greater part of the world ridge consists of long and wide plateaus, broken by mountains and val-



Key to Map of World Ridge.

leys. In many places it is hundreds of miles in width.

On both sides of the primary highland, the land slopes away to the shores and there dips beneath the sea. Most of the longer slopes are on the inner side of the horseshoe-shaped highland.

These slopes make wide plains between the primary highland and the sea. There are few large rivers on the outside of the world ridge. Why?

On which side of the equator are the ends of the primary highlands?

4. Continents or Grand Divisions.

Each of the great highlands in the world ridge forms the backbone of a large body of land. These lands are North America, South America, Eurasia and Africa. Southeast of Eurasia lies a great body of land called Australia.

Which of these bodies of land are north of the equator? Which are crossed by the equator?

There are two parts of Eurasia,—Asia on the east, and Europe on the west. Which part is the larger?

North America, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa and Australia are called *continents*, or *grand divisions*.

Which of these continents is wholly south of the equator?

Behring (Bering) strait cuts through the primary highland and separates the *Old World* from *America*, or the *New World*.

Which continents are in America? Which are in the Old World?

What isthmus connects the two parts of America?

Where is the isthmus of Suez? What seas does it separate?

Which is the larger,—Africa or Eurasia? Africa or North America? Australia or North America?

Which continent is farthest from your home?

Write as many facts as you can about the continents and oceans, using the map on this page.





5. The Oceans.

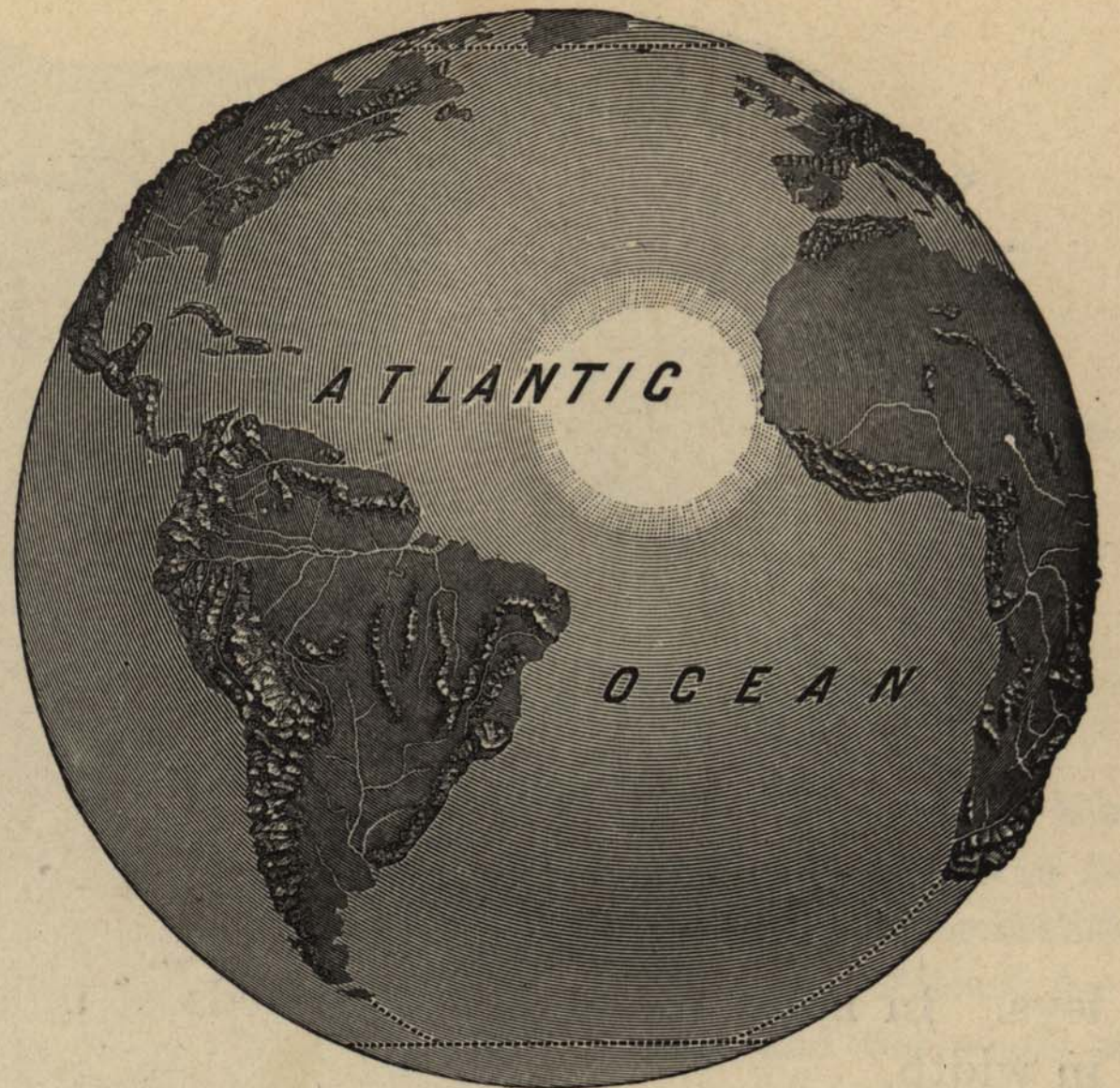
The oceans cover about three fourths of the earth's surface and wholly or partly separate the continents from one another.

What three oceans extend northward from the Antarctic ocean?

Which ocean is east of America? Which is west of America? Which of these two oceans is the larger?

On which side of the Old World is the Atlantic ocean?

On which side is the Pacific ocean?



What small ocean adjoins the Atlantic on the north? Which pole is near the middle of that ocean?

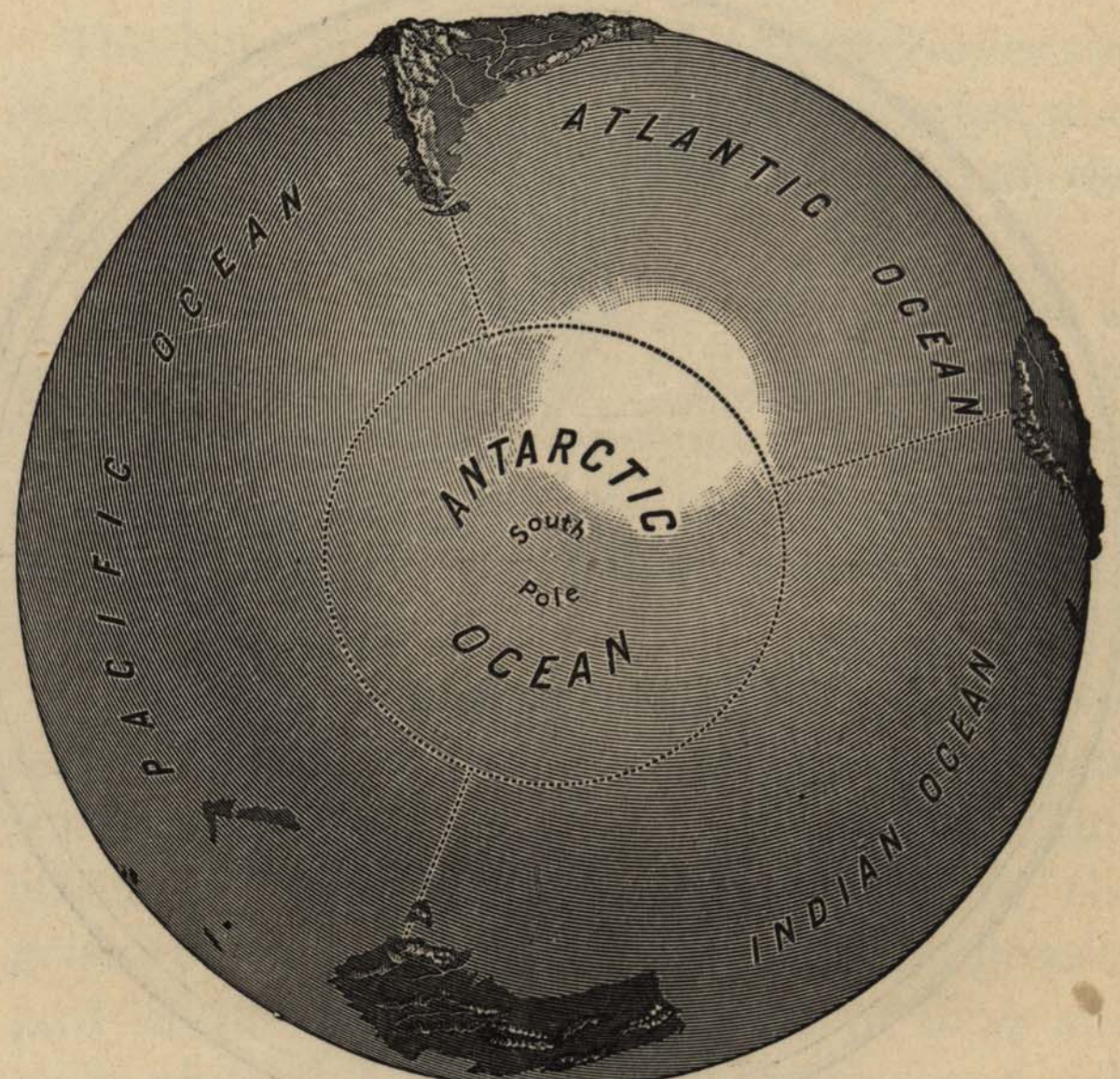
What ocean is south of Asia? What lands partly surround that ocean?

Name the continents which border on the Pacific ocean; on the Atlantic ocean; on the Arctic ocean.

What oceans border on North America? On Asia? Australia? Africa? South America?

What continents border on the Atlantic ocean?

What is the chief difference between the boundaries of the Arctic Ocean and the boundaries of the Antarctic ocean?





6. Shore Forms.



America.

These pictures represent a part of the ocean and the land bordering on it. Twice each day the water of the ocean slowly rises along the shore, and twice it slowly falls and leaves the beach bare. It takes about six hours for the water to rise and about six hours for it to fall. This rise and fall of the water is called *the tide*.

These pictures show the same shore at different tide stages.

When the water goes all around a portion of land, the land is called an *island*.

When a portion of land is almost an island it is called a *peninsula*.

A point of land ex-

tending into the water is a *cape*. A narrow neck of land connecting two larger portions of land is called an *isthmus*.

A *strait* is a body of water connecting two larger bodies of water.

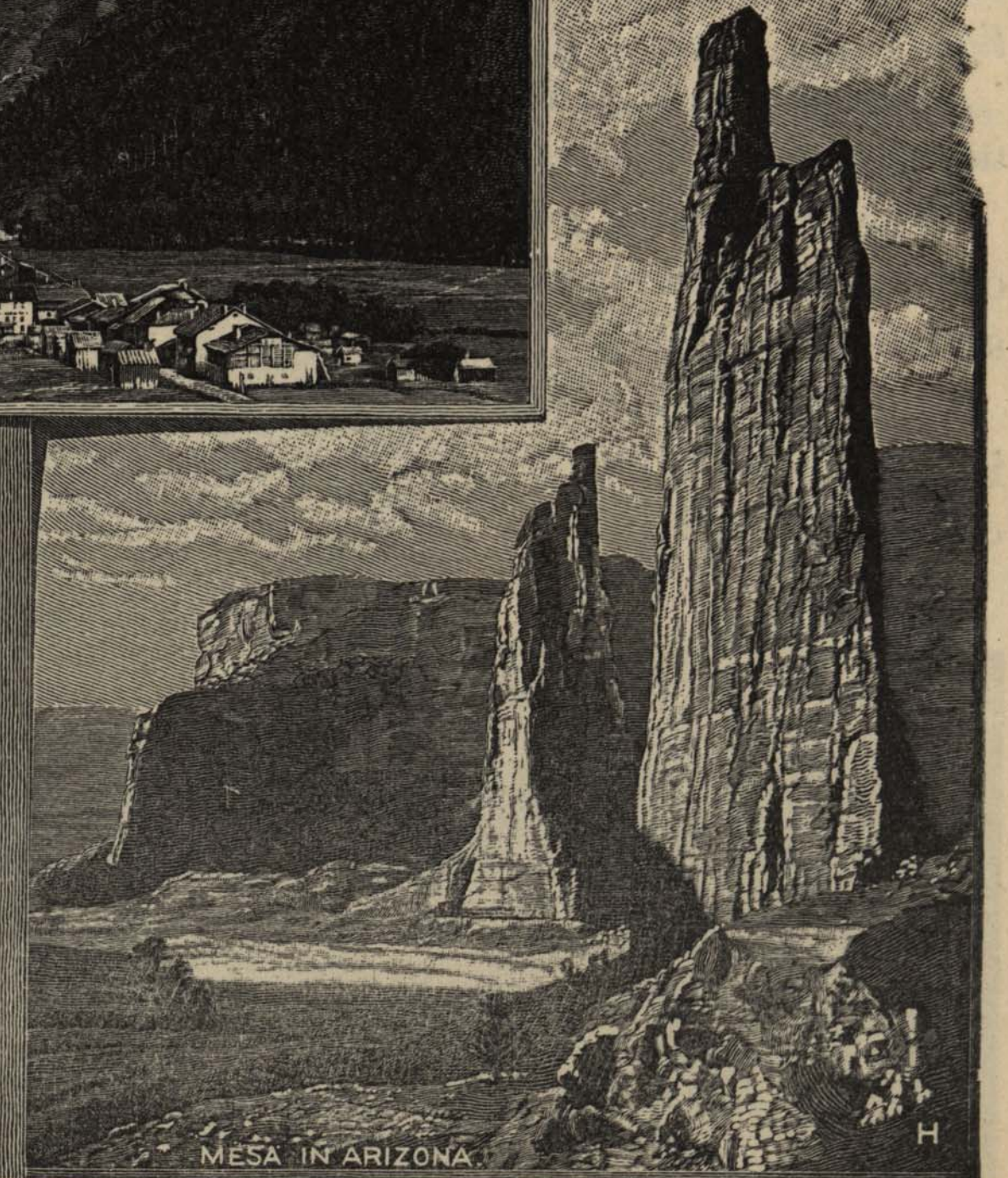
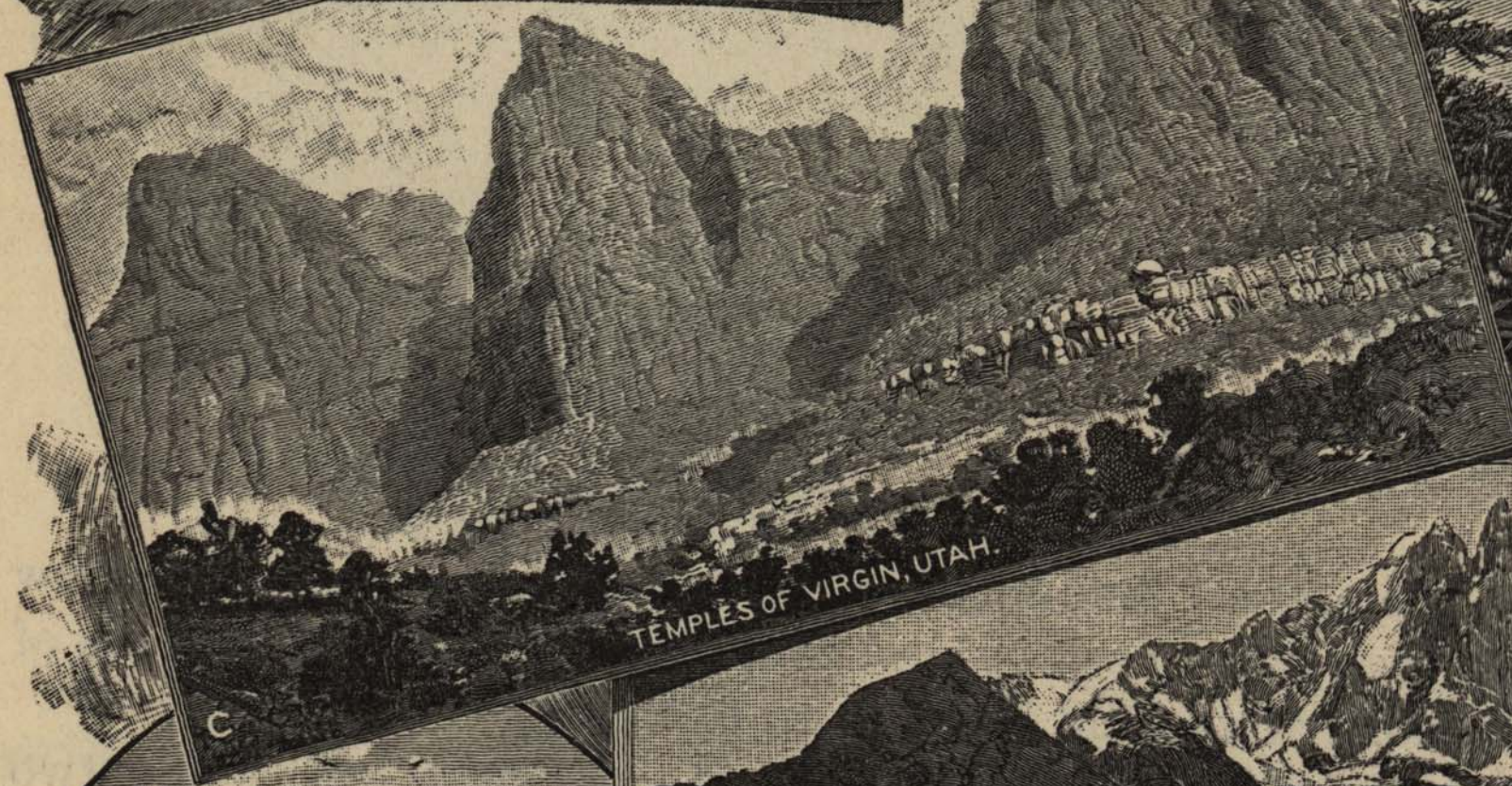
A long narrow strait is sometimes called a



sound. The name *sound* is also given to narrow bodies of water lying between islands and the main-

land. Some straits are many miles wide, but they are narrower than the bodies of water they connect. Wide straits are sometimes called *channels*.

In many places, arms of the ocean reach into the land. Some of these are called *bays*, some *gulfs* and others *seas*.





Mountains (Jungfrau, Alps).

7. Mountains.

Mountains are rugged parts of the earth's surface that rise high above the surrounding country. They are generally formed by the wearing of deep valleys in regions that have been greatly uplifted. The mountains are the high parts not yet worn away.

Some mountain regions are worn away to sharp rocky peaks. The mountains of other regions are rounded like domes. Still others have flat tops and steep sides.

A high and rugged ridge, or several such ridges near one another, may be called a *mountain range*. Some ranges are hundreds of miles long.

A number of ranges having the same general direction in one great highland forms a *mountain system*.

All the ranges in the western part of North America belong to the *Rocky Mountain System*. This mountain region was very unevenly lifted, and is now so greatly worn away that its surface has gone down to beds of rock that were once deeply buried. It is in such deep layers of rock that veins yield-

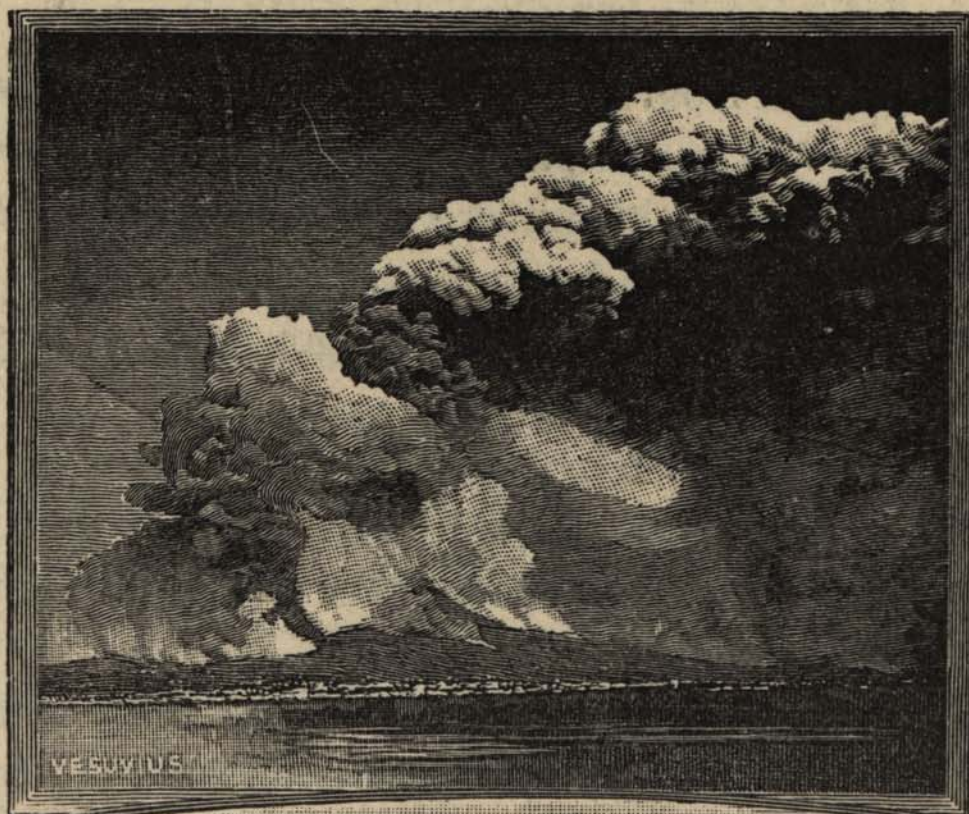
ing gold and silver ore are found. When the surface is worn down near them they can be mined.

High mountains reach into the upper air, which is cold, even when the air in low valleys, not many miles away, is very warm. On the lofty peaks, three miles or more above sea level, the air is so light or thin that persons find it difficult to breathe there. The lower air, near the level of the sea, is dense because it is pressed down by all the air above or upon it.

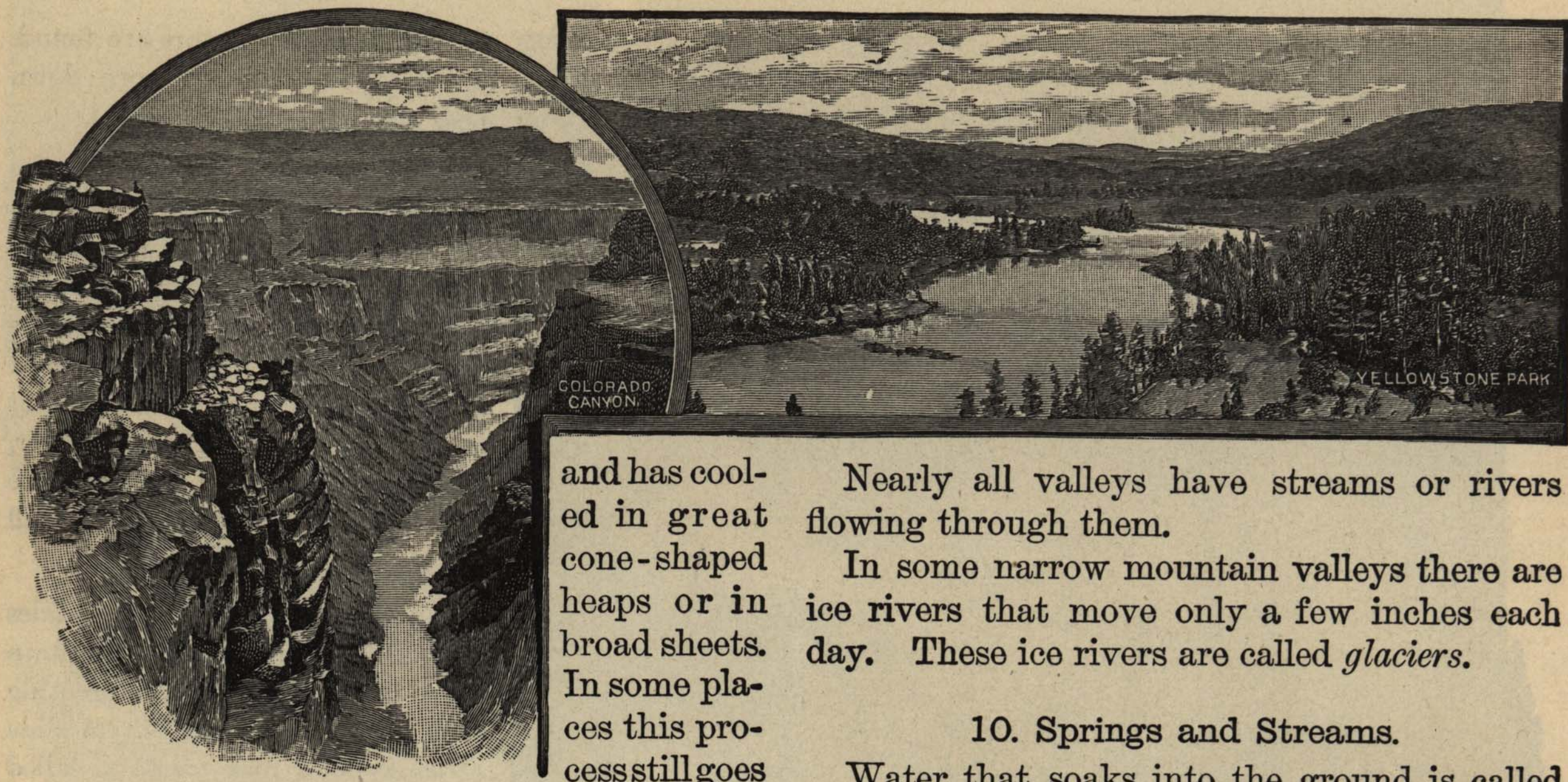
Great snowslides or landslides sometimes rush from the mountain sides into the valleys, uprooting trees and burying houses. A slide of snow or of rock waste is called an *avalanche*.

8. Volcanoes.

In some parts of the world melted rock, or *lava*, has been pushed up from beneath the surface through breaks in the surface rocks,



Lava Field.



on. Each of these cone-shaped masses is called a *volcano*. It may be no larger than a hill, or it may be two or three miles in height.

The bursting forth of lava from a volcano or a fissure is called an *eruption*. Many eruptions must take place to build up a great volcanic cone.

The molten rock from volcanoes sometimes spreads out in wide plains. In some places lava has poured from long fissures in the earth's surface, and has formed plains that cover many thousand square miles. In India there was a lava flow which spread over an area of about 200,000 square miles.

Most volcanoes are found not many miles from the coasts of the continents, or on islands not far off shore. Many more volcanoes are found near the Pacific coast than near the Atlantic.

A large number of small islands have been wholly built by volcanic action, sometimes even growing from the deep floor of mid-ocean.

9. Valleys.

Valleys are low lands between mountains or hills. Some valleys are very narrow, some are wide. Some have gently sloping sides, and others have steep rocky sides. In some places deep valleys with steep rocky sides are called cañons. In other places they are called gorges.

Nearly all valleys have streams or rivers flowing through them.

In some narrow mountain valleys there are ice rivers that move only a few inches each day. These ice rivers are called *glaciers*.

10. Springs and Streams.

Water that soaks into the ground is called ground water. It sometimes travels under ground for many miles.

Water may often be seen coming out of the ground through little crevices, thus forming *springs*. Many springs are found at the foot of hill-slopes. Others appear along borders of brooks or rivers. In many places the ground water is found rising in the beds of streams or lakes.

The spring which is farthest up the valley trough is called the *source*, or *head* of the stream that it feeds.

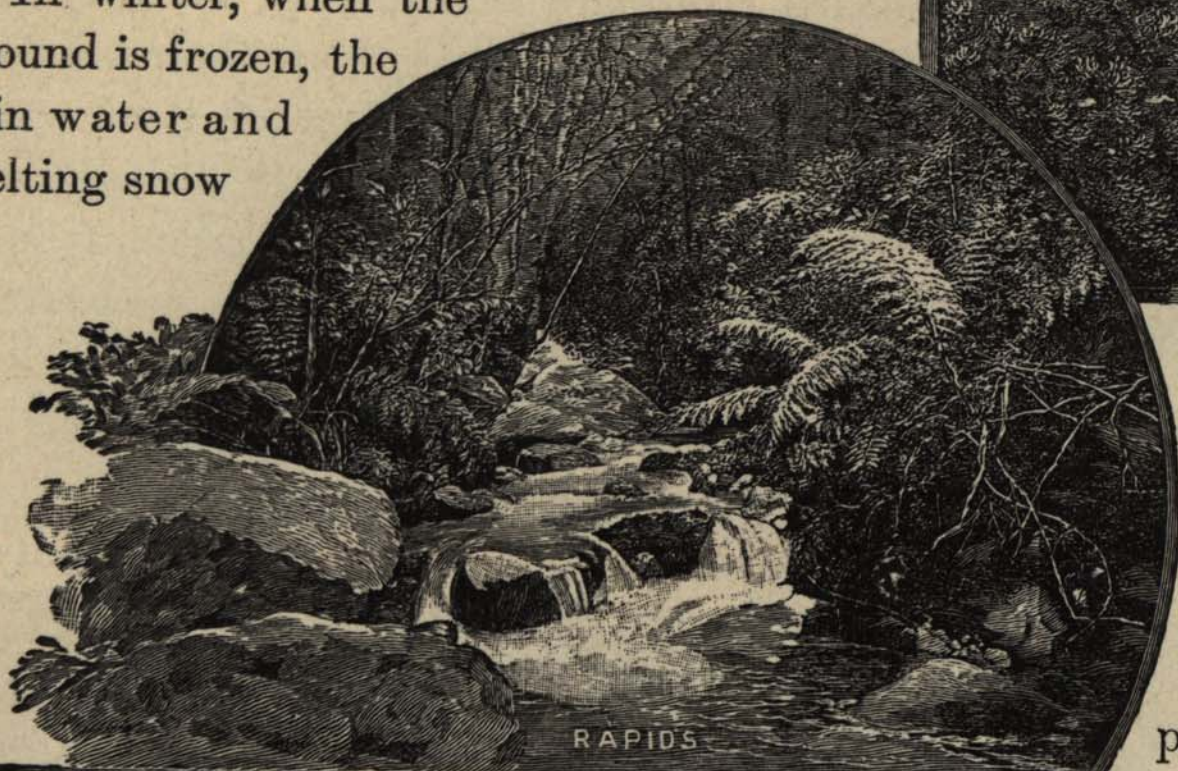
Surface water is often muddy but nearly all ground water is clear, because it moves too slowly to carry waste. Spring water is



therefore much better than surface water for drinking. Wells also are supplied by ground water.

Most springs flow so slowly that the supply of ground water from one rain lasts till rain again falls. Such springs flow in both rainy and fair weather. In long, dry spells, or droughts, springs yield less and less water, or they may even cease to flow.

In winter, when the ground is frozen, the rain water and melting snow



lands or even carrying it to the sea, where in time it forms new land.

The Mississippi river carries down vast quantities of mud, and makes new land at its mouth. Part of this mud is carried away by the Gulf stream, and is then washed in by the waves towards the United States. The great plains of the east of Florida, Georgia, South and North Carolina have been formed in this way, and new land is constantly forming under the ocean east of these states. Thus the Rocky Mountains are being transformed into plains on the Atlantic coast.

11. Rivers and River Systems.

Some rivers start from springs. Others flow from lakes, swamps, or melting ice and snow.

The beginning of a river is called its *head* or *source*.

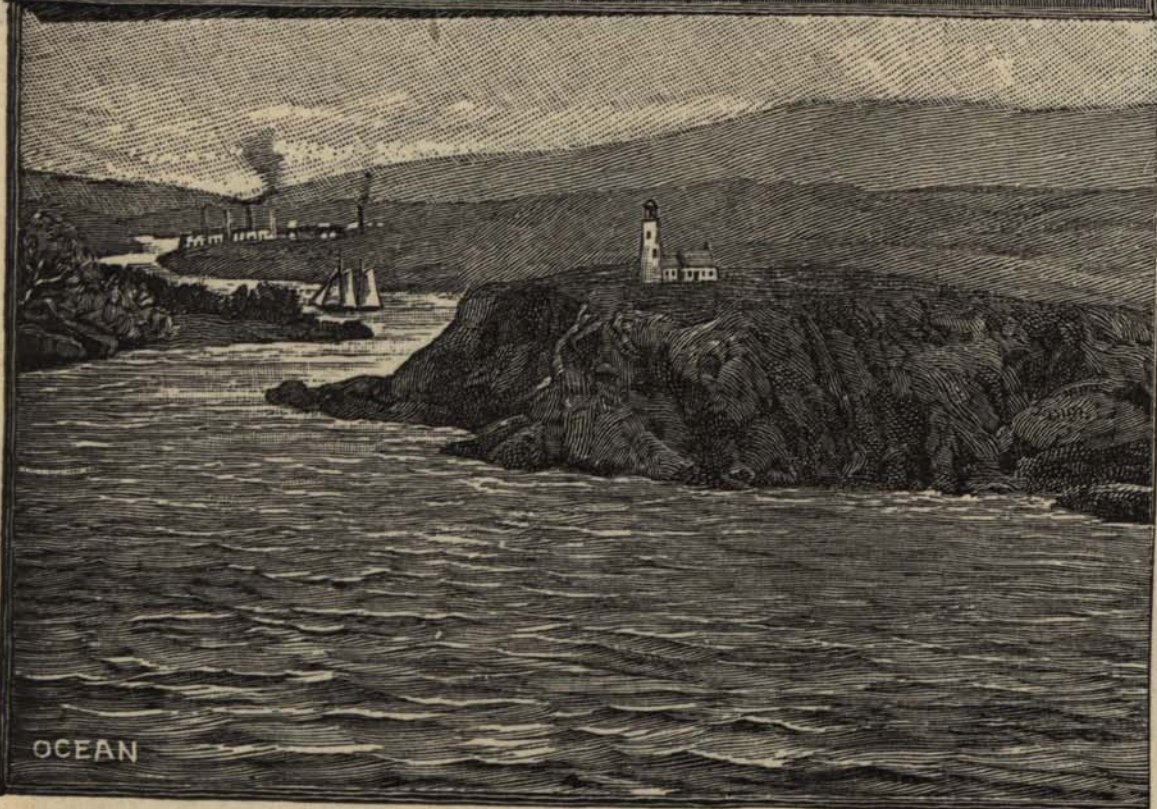
While on its way to the sea, a river becomes larger and larger as it is joined by other streams from side valleys.

Large cities are often built near rivers. If the water flows swiftly, it may be used to turn mill wheels. If the rivers are deep enough, steamers and other vessels may go from place to place, carrying passengers and freight.

The lower end of a river, where it flows into the sea, or into some other body of water, is known as the *mouth* of the river.

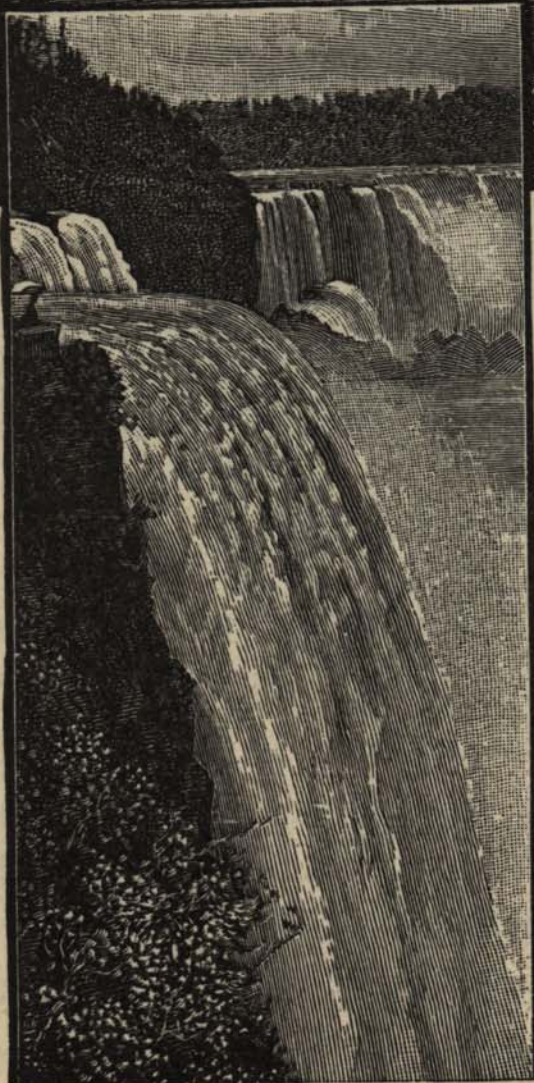
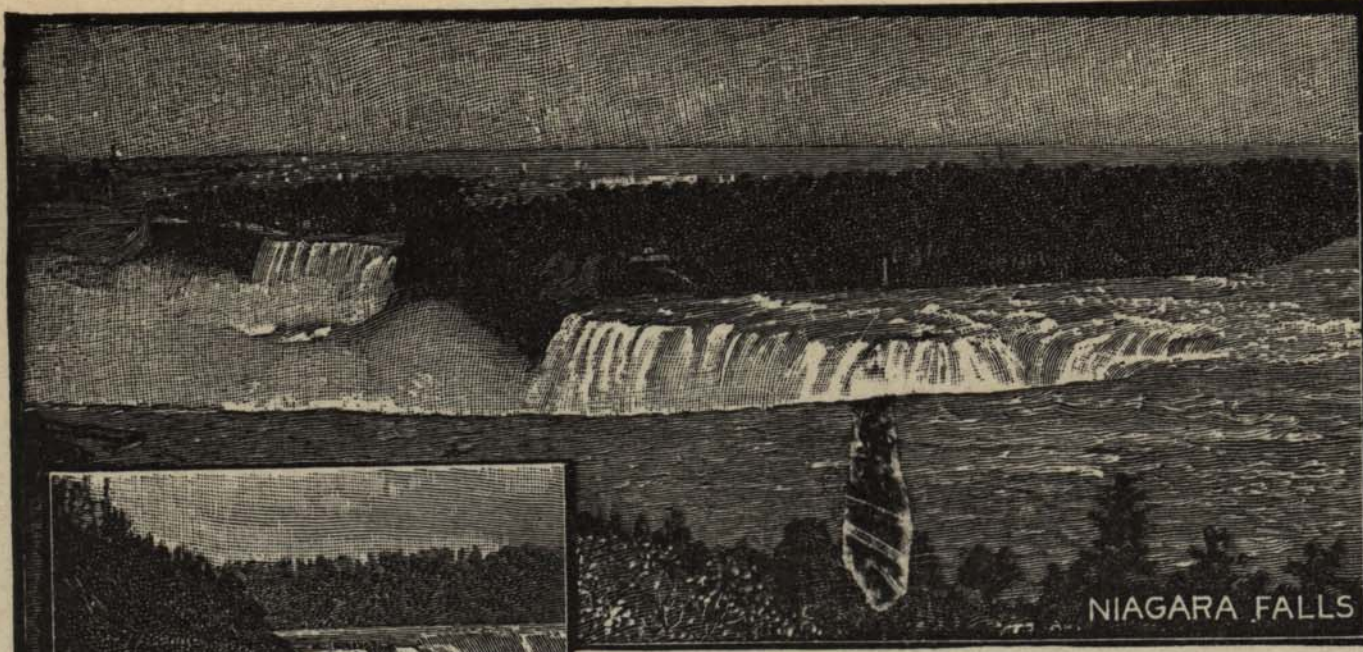
Many of the largest cities in the world are built near the mouths of rivers.

Rivers often wear steep places in their beds. The water leaps down, forming *waterfalls*. A great fall of water over a steep bank is called



From Source to Mouth.

run quickly to the streams and often flood them. They then cut away their banks and wash the rock waste down their valleys, spreading it over the flooded



a *cataract*. A little fall is a *cascade*.

12. River Basins and Divides.

All the land which sheds water into a single river system forms a *river basin*. The basin generally takes the same name as the main river in the system.

Niagara Falls.

A river system drains all the land which forms its basin. From the slopes of the basin, the streams carry the land waste towards their mouths. The longer the streams continue to flow, the lower the slopes of their basins are worn.

Find the line which bounds the basin of the river marked *C* in the picture, in the opposite column. This runs along the top, or *crest* of the ridges, and separates the slopes in basin *C* from those in the other basins. Such a line is called a *divide* or *water parting*. It divides the slopes of the basins.

Some of the most important divides on the earth cross wide plains whose slopes are too gentle for the eye to detect.

The Amazon basin in South America is the largest in the world. Its main river pours into the ocean more water than any other stream. This basin is crossed by the equator, and covers more than two million square miles. Steamers can go for thousands of miles up and down the many branches of the Amazon system.

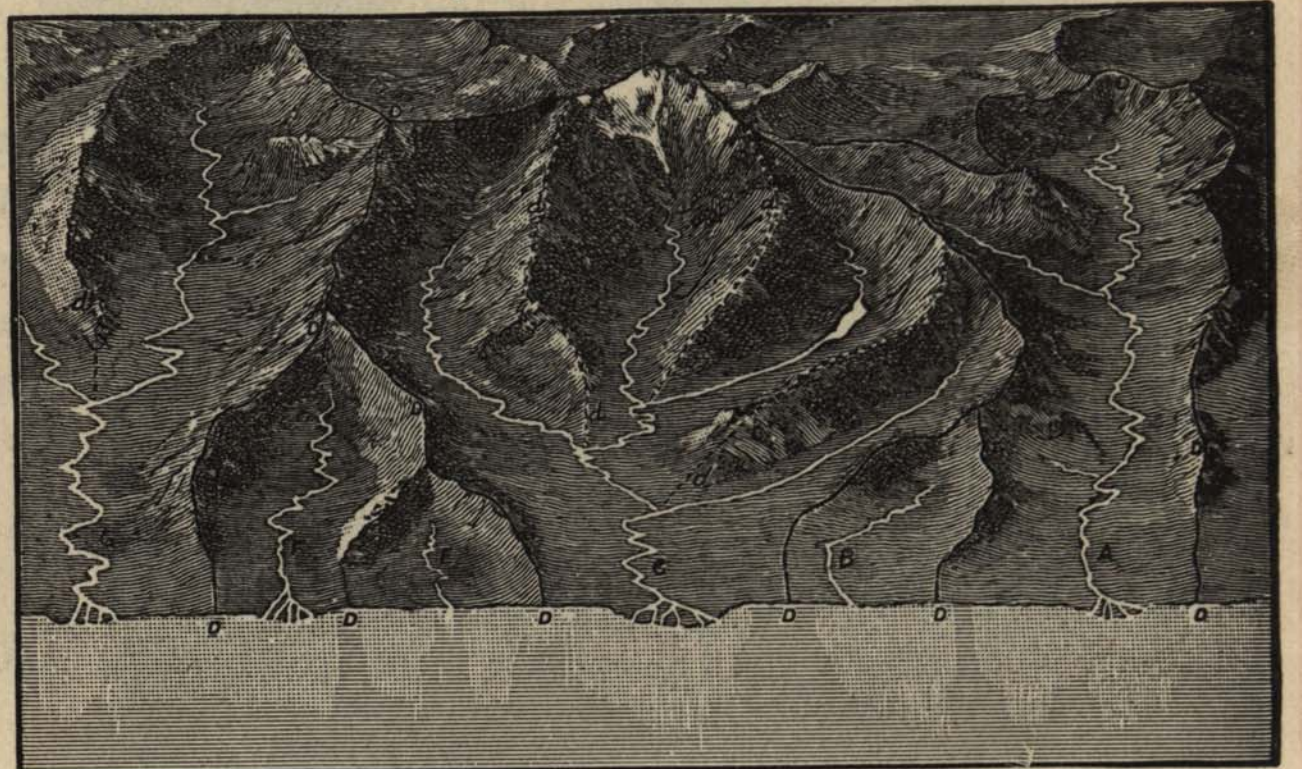
The Mississippi basin is the largest in North America, but is only about one half as large as the Amazon basin. The map on this page shows where these great basins are.

13. Plains and Deltas.

After heavy rains, or after much snow has quickly melted, great volumes of water run down the brooks and into the rivers. Then the rivers often overflow their banks and spread over the flat meadows, called *flood plains*, on either side.

Flooded rivers are very muddy, for they not only cut their own banks, but their swollen branches also bring them a great deal of land waste from the sides of their valleys. The water moves slowly on the flood plains and deposits thin layers of mud, called *silt*. When the flood is over, this silt gives fresh food to plants. After a heavy rain-storm, you may find silt in the hollows by the roadside, where the water has evaporated, or has soaked into the ground.

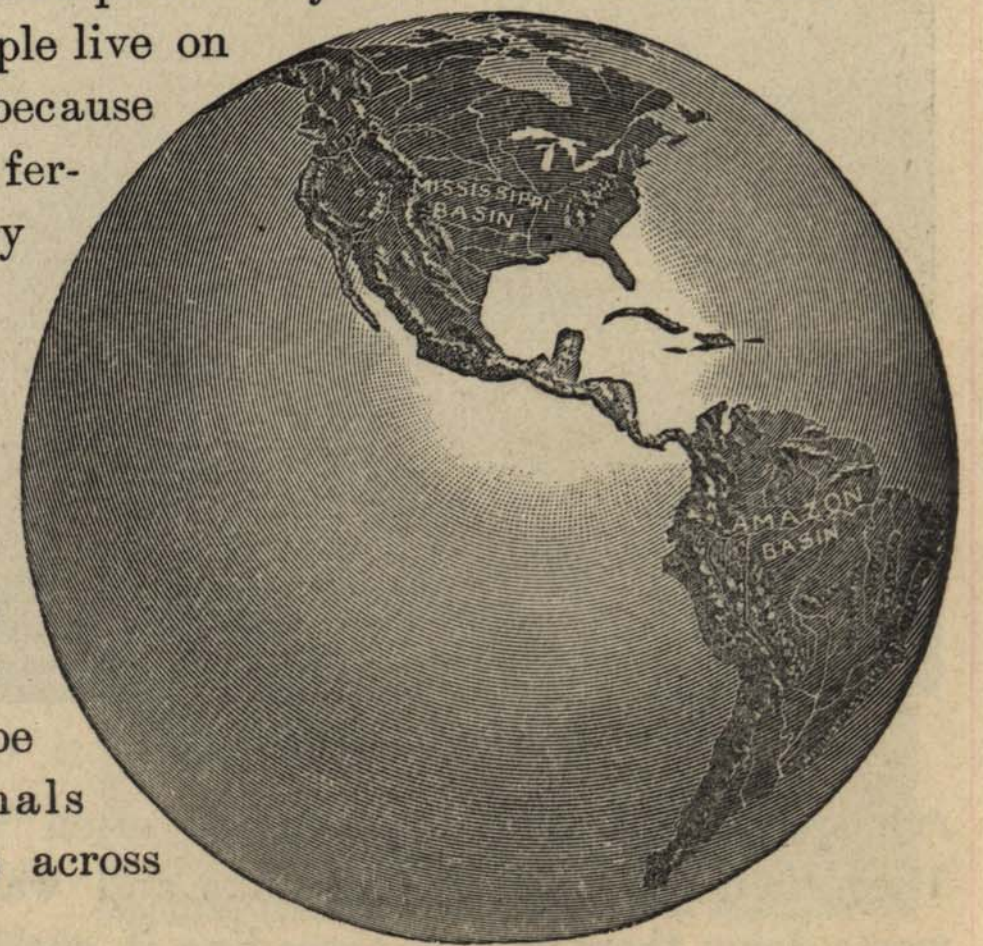
In narrow valleys the flood plains extend for only a



Mountainous Regions and River Divides.

short distance on either side of the river. In broad valleys the flood plains may be several miles wide.

Many people live on flood plains because they are so fertile. In dry countries, flood plains are the best places for people to settle, because the river water can be led in canals and ditches across such plains.



America.

Most of the silt borne along by rivers is slowly washed down to the sea. A large part of the silt settles near the river mouths, where the water flows more slowly. The settlements, called *sediment*, form low and flat plains.



ZAANDAM, HOLLAND.

Lowlands thus formed at the mouths of rivers are known as *deltas*. Most deltas are the lower ends of flood plains



LAVA PLAIN, IDAHO.

In the far east, about half-way round the earth from us, there is a large delta plain on which millions of Chinese people live. Most of this delta was made by the Yellow river.

This river sometimes takes a new course across its delta plain.

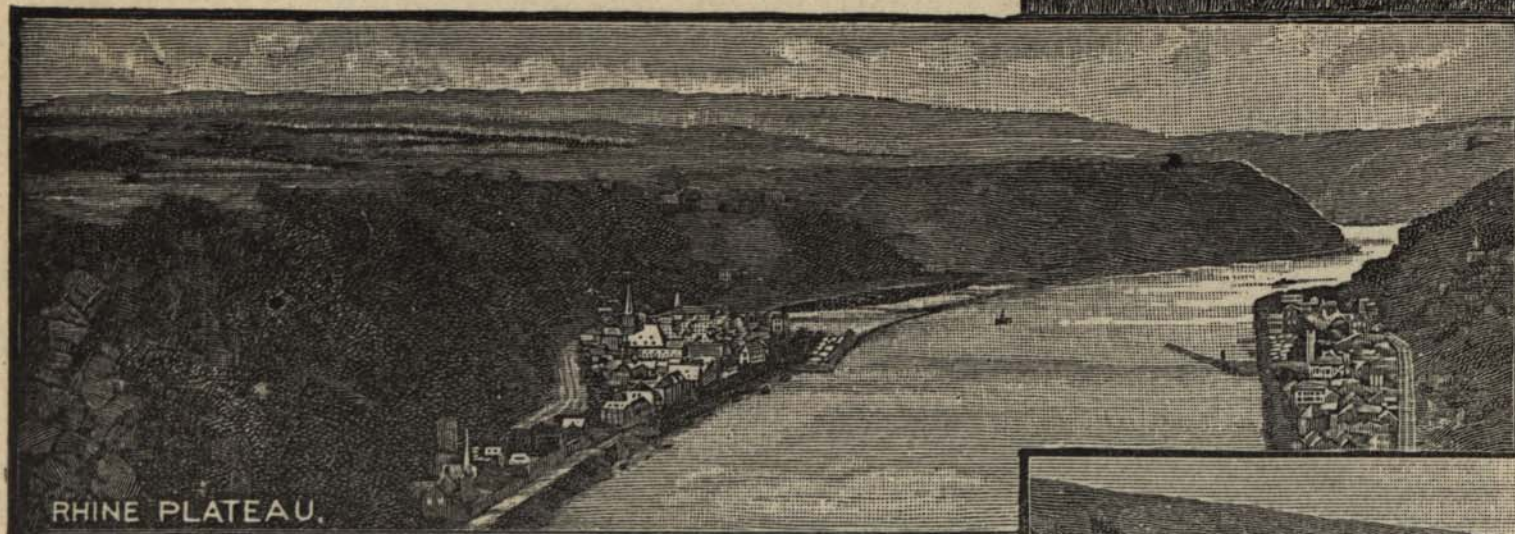
Fields, villages and cities are sometimes flooded or swept away, and many people are drowned.



GRAINFIELD, N. DAK.

Prairie or Plain Scene in Manitoba.

Plains are formed in various ways. In Canada, there are thou-



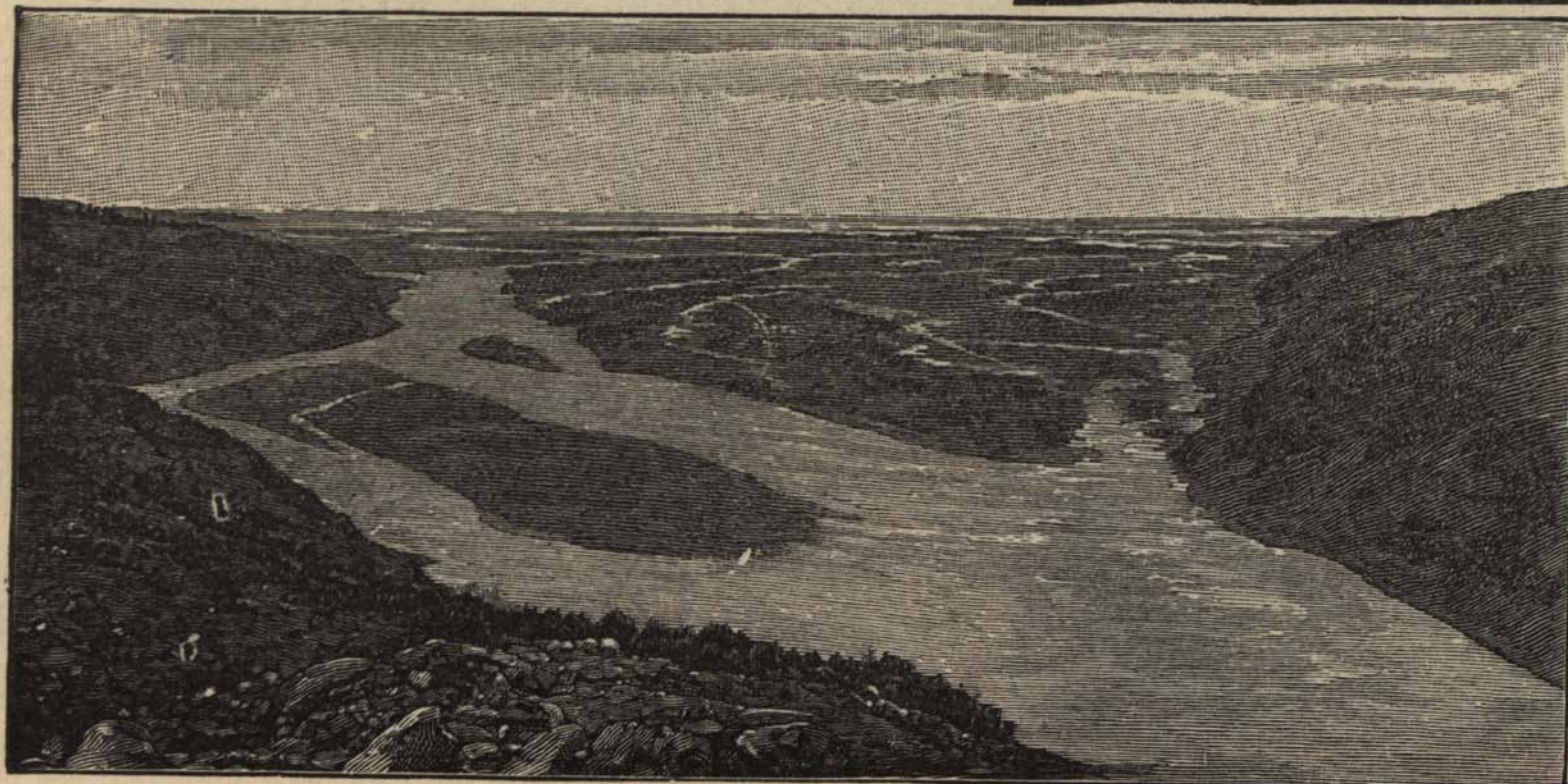
RHINE PLATEAU.

built out into the sea. The soil of delta plains is generally fine and fertile.

Deltas gradually become flood plains and new deltas form farther out in the sea.



RHINE FLOOD PLAIN.



Delta in Alaska.

sands of square miles of plains, from the Rocky Mountains to the eastern part of Manitoba, like the grain field in the picture on this page where the men are at work. Long ages ago this plain was under water.

The rocky plain upon which bushes are growing is a lava plain. Melted rock or lava came up from the inside of the earth and formed

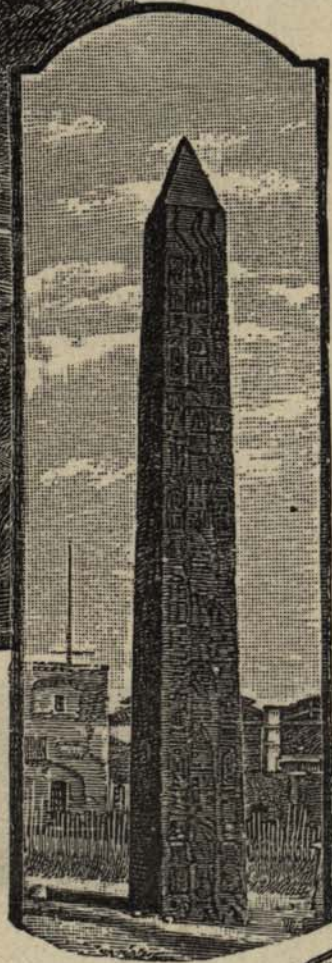


Weathered Rock.

this plain. The lava spread out and cooled and hardened. Soil forms on it by the action of the weather. High plains are sometimes called *plateaus*.

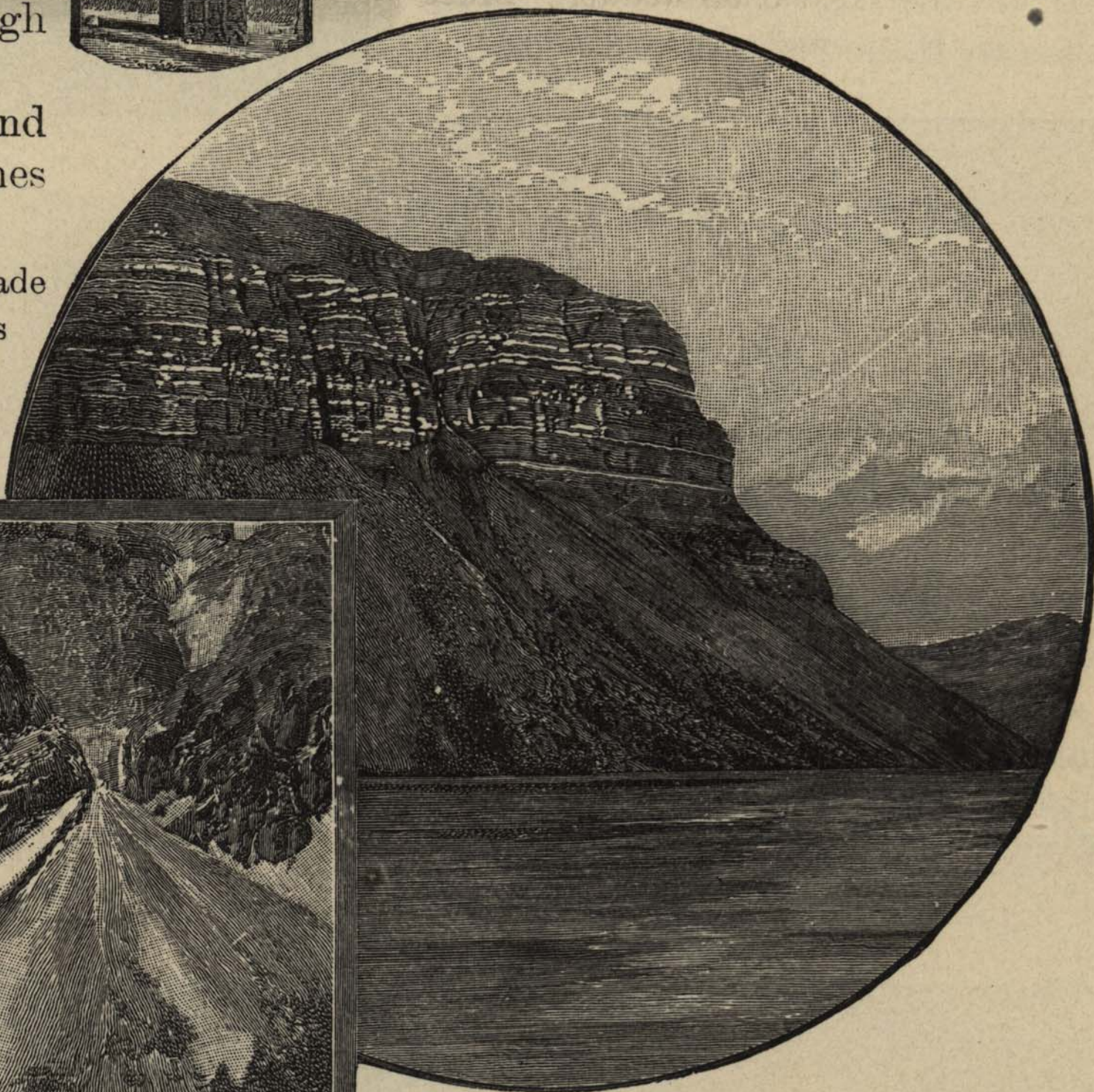
Most fertile land is on plains, and therefore most people make their homes on plains.

The Mississippi river, in America, has made a flood plain several miles wide and hundreds of miles long. Its lower part is a very large delta plain. These lowlands built by the great river are very fertile.



14. The Waste of the Land.

As the weather changes from warm to cold, or from wet to dry, all rocks exposed to the air and the rain slowly decay, but many years may be needed to loosen only a few grains. As rocks decay or crumble they are said to *weather*. The loosened parts weather finer and finer, forming *rock waste* or *land waste*. In some places the rock waste is thirty or forty feet in depth, but in most places it is thinner. Finely crumbled rock mixed with plant and animal matter is called *soil*. Year after year plants grow and decay, while myriads of insects and worms live and die in the fine rock waste. The remains of the plants, the insects, the worms and other creatures mingle with the fine rock waste



Rock Waste at Foot of Cliff (Spitzbergen).



Steep Alluvial Fan.

to form the dark rich topsoil. The roots of most plants grow in the topsoil. When it is moist, the plants take from it part of the food needed for their growth.

In lands that have but little rain and frost, rocks weather very slowly. In our own country, where rains are common and where winters bring frosts and thaws, the decay of rocks is more rapid.

The monument shown in the picture on the opposite page, stood for thousands of years in Egypt, where rain seldom falls. There its surface showed but few signs of decay.

Not many years ago, this monument, Cleopatra's Needle, was brought to New York. The rock then crumbled so fast that it became necessary to protect the surface from the weather.

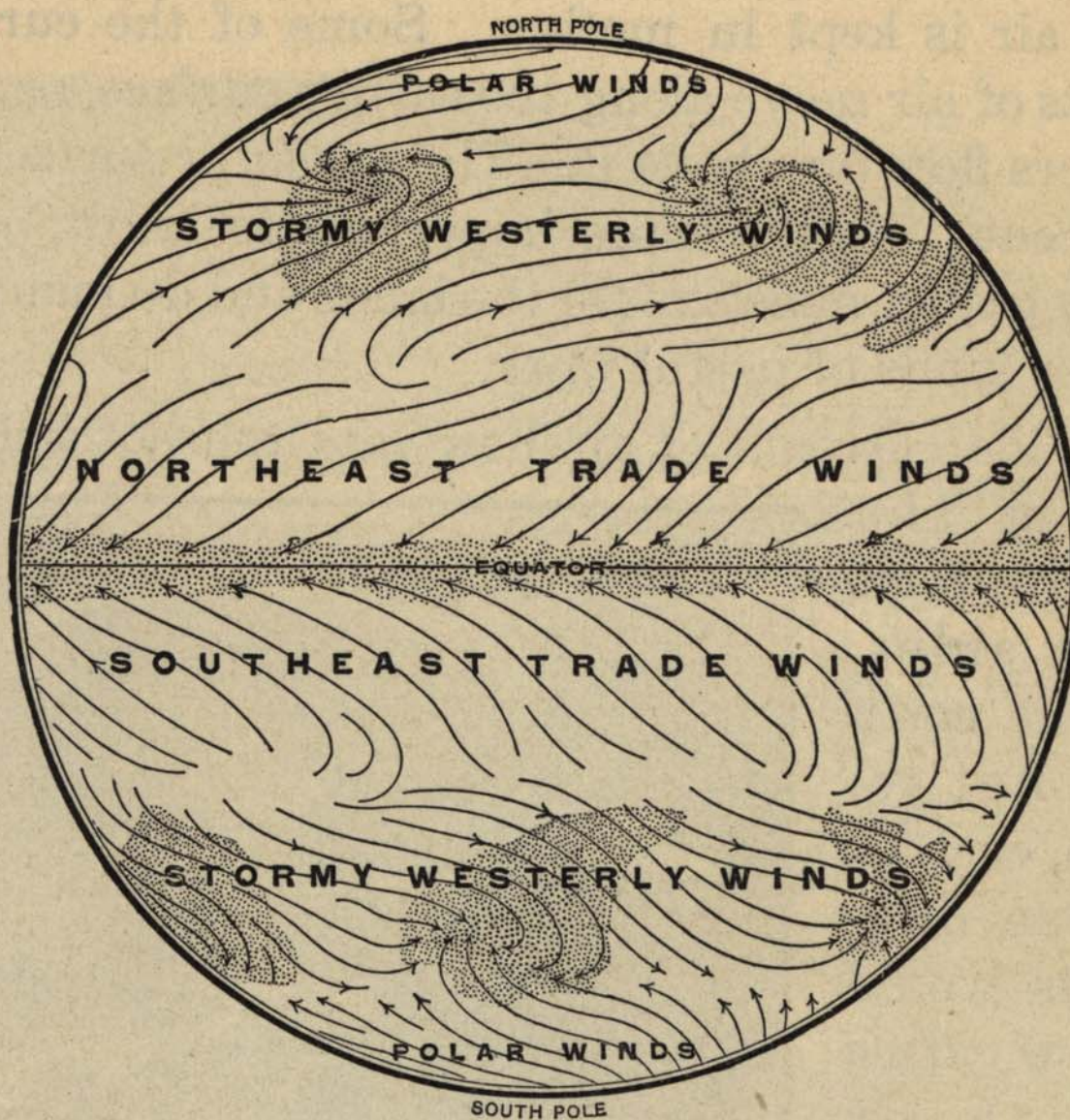
15. Land Waste on the Way to the Sea.

In rainy weather the surface waste is washed down the slopes, but in both wet and dry weather the whole sheet or layer of soil and coarser rock waste is very, very slowly creeping down hill. With every change from wet to dry, from warm to cold, or from frost to thaw, the rock waste is weathering finer and finer as it moves down the slopes.

The coarse rock waste rolls down, making steep slopes at the foot of the crags. The finer waste is washed into the lowlands.

When waste is washed down from valleys on mountain slopes, it sometimes forms great fan-shaped heaps. These heaps of waste are called *alluvial fans*. They often become very large in dry countries where the streams are not strong enough to wash the waste down the valleys.

The topsoil in valleys consists mainly of fine waste that has been washed from the higher land. Most of the ground water flows into the valleys and helps to keep the soil moist. For



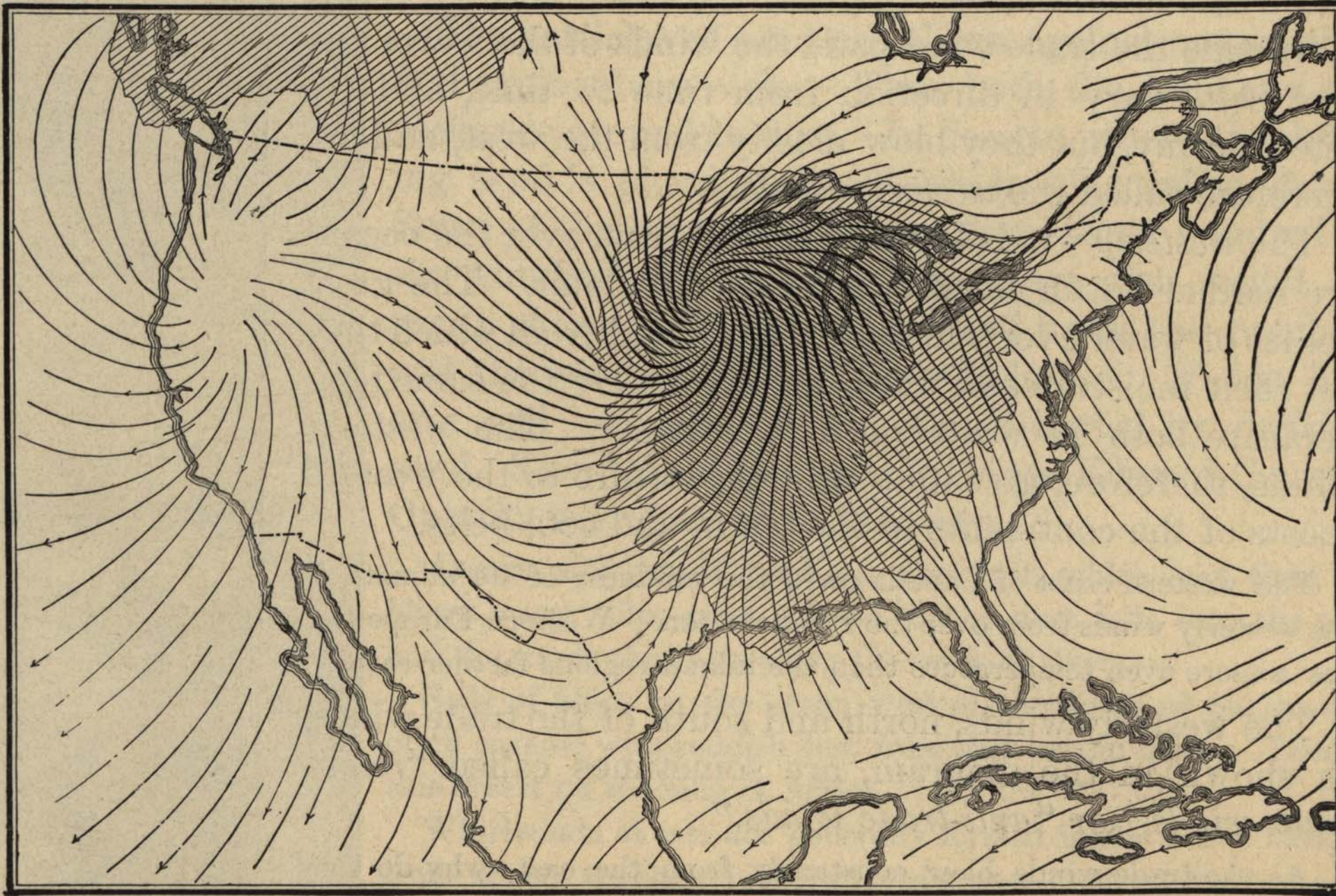
General Plan of the Winds.
(The dotted areas indicate rain.)

these reasons many of the best farms are in lowland valleys.

16. Winds and Rainfall.

Winds.—Cold air, being heavier than hot air, flows towards and creeps under the hot air, which rises upwards.

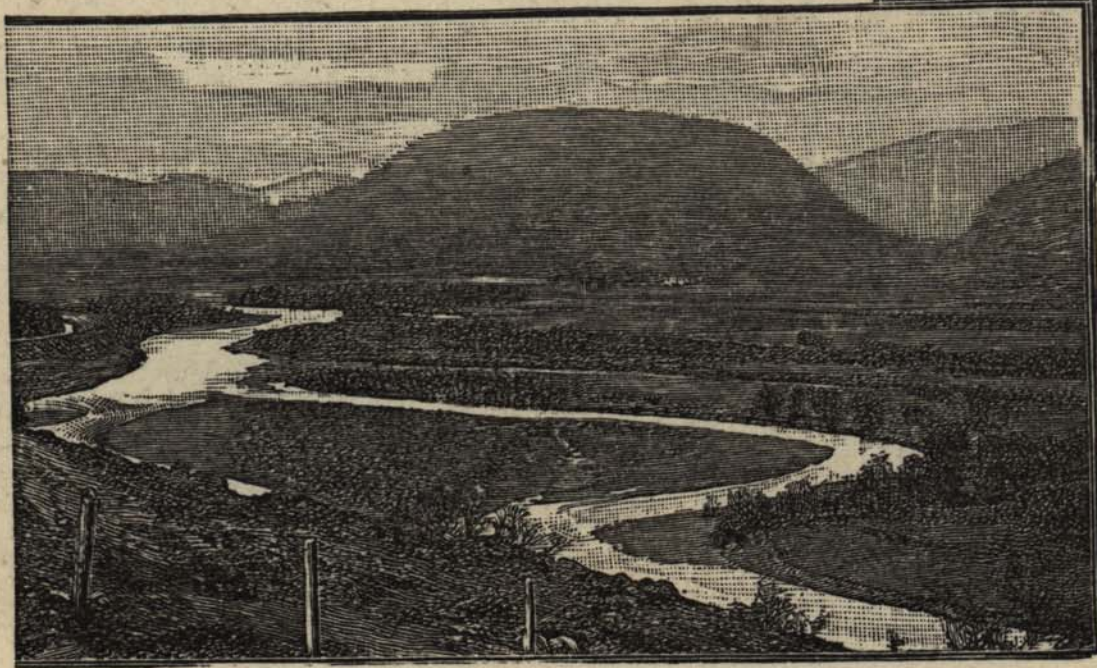
As all parts of the earth are not heated alike,



Eddying Storm moving Eastward.

the air is kept in motion. Some of the currents of air move along the earth's surface, and others flow far above it. The *winds*, or surface currents, are the more important to know, as they gather moisture for the lands and do many other kinds of useful work.

Wide currents of air flow into the hot belt from the regions on both sides. If the earth did not rotate, each of these currents would flow due south or north, to-



Dry Weather.

wards the heat equator. The turning of the earth on its axis turns these winds westward, so that they flow into the hot belt from the north-east and the south-east.

These winds are called the *trade winds*. On the oceans they are very steady, and blow with little change by day or by night. The trade winds are seldom interrupted by bad weather or storms.

Outside the trade wind path, the winds of the warm and cool belts vary in direction from time to time, and are often stormy, but they blow mostly from the west, and are therefore called the *westerly winds*.

The *westerly* winds blowing inland from over the oceans are neither hot in summer nor cold in winter. The great bodies of water over which they blow, and from which they get their moisture and warmth, have nearly the same temperature both in winter and in summer. The westerly winds, therefore, give an even temperature to the western coasts of the continents in the warm and cool belts.

The western coast of Canada owes the mildness of its climate to the westerly winds from over the Pacific ocean. Western Europe also has a more even temperature than the inland regions farther east.

The westerly winds, north and south of the trade winds, as shown in the diagram, are sometimes called "*return trade winds*," or "*anti-trade winds*."

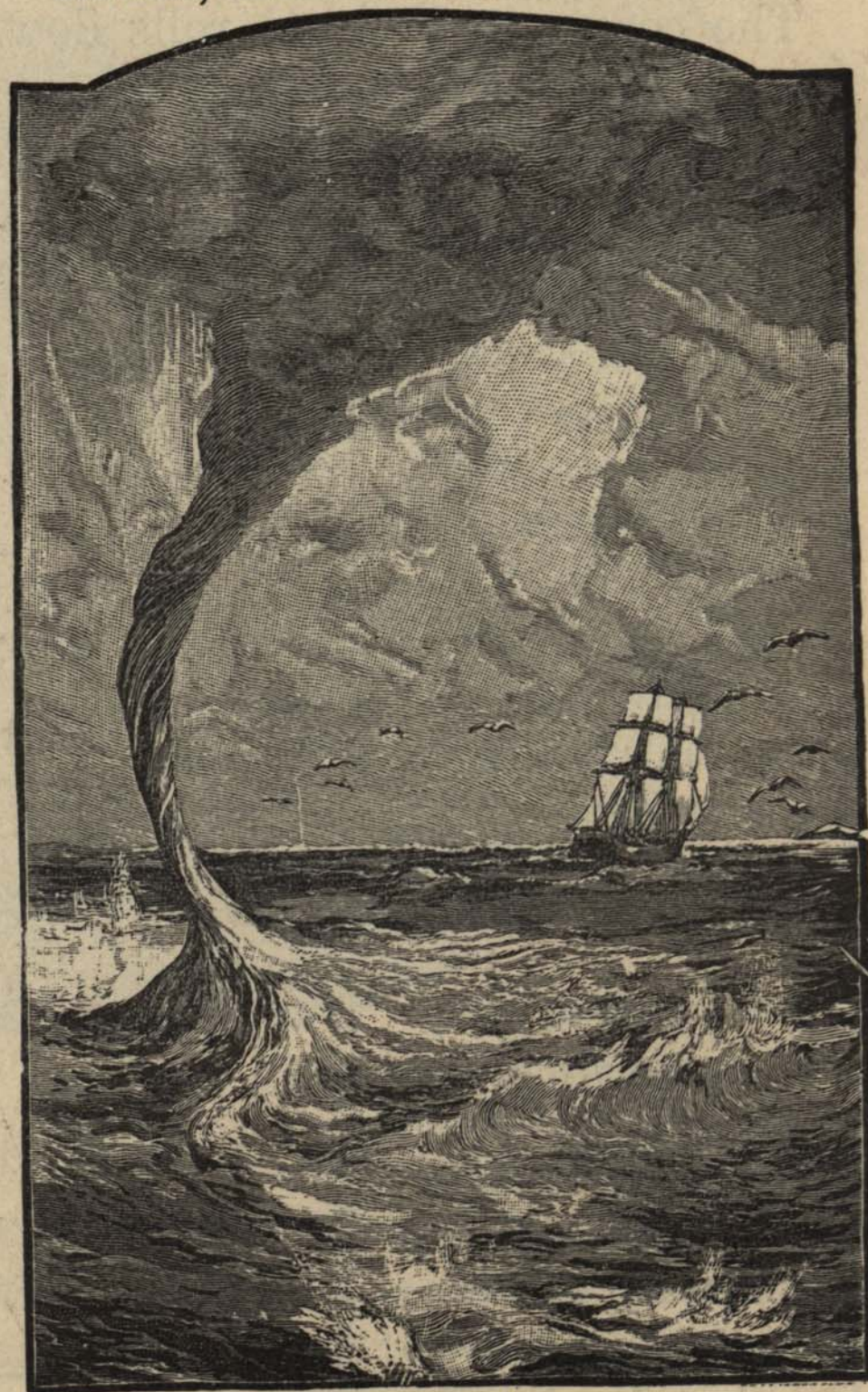
As the trade winds blow constantly from the east, why do they not cause the earth to stop rotating?



Rainy Weather.

In the cold belts the winds are variable and often stormy. They generally blow in about the same direction as the trade winds,—most frequently from the north-east in the north polar region, and from the south-east in the south polar region. These are called *polar winds*.

Rainfall.—Vapor rises from the ocean, and the winds carry it about in the form of clouds. When the air is cool it cannot hold so much vapor as when warmer. When cooled enough, the vapor in it forms clouds, often with rain or snow.



Waterspout.

When the air grows warmer it can hold more vapor, and no clouds then form in it.

The trade winds blow towards the heat equator, and therefore do not give out rainfall unless they are chilled on the way. Lowlands in the path of these winds are generally dry, but the windward sides of highlands in the trade wind belts receive abundant rainfall.

When air rises to cross highlands, it expands and cools. Some of its vapor may then be condensed into clouds which may yield rainfall on the slopes of the highlands.

Some of the great deserts in the world are lowlands in the path of the trade winds.

On highlands and on windward coasts the rainfall from the storms of the westerly winds is very heavy. Far inland the rainfall is much lighter.



Waves on the Seashore.

17. Work of the Winds.

Strong winds cannot reach soil that is covered with grass or trees, but in dry lands where there are but few plants, the winds sweep over the ground and scatter fine rock waste far and wide. Coarse sand is drifted along like dry snow in winter.

The particles of sand are blown against one another and against bare rocks. Thus both the sand and the rocks are ground to dust. In deserts, where the drifting sand is plentiful, it gathers in hills called *dunes*. Some of these sandy hills are from three hundred to six hundred feet high. Dunes are also found on sandy shores. Waves throw sand upon the beaches, and the winds may then blow it inland. Fields, forests and villages are sometimes buried by drifting sand. The "Sand Banks" of Prince Edward County, Ontario, were formed in this way.

Desert whirlwinds take up fine dust, which may then be blown many miles away. Some of the dust falls into the sea, and the winds thus help along the work of rivers.

Sails of ships on the ocean west of the desert of Sahara are often covered with reddish dust from that barren region. Locate this desert on the map of Africa.

Whirlwinds at sea are generally formed under heavy clouds, from which whirling funnel-shaped spouts seem to descend and join the spray raised from the waves. The long whirling funnels are called *waterspouts*.



Desert Dunes.

Winds form waves and the waves which roll against the land wash stones and sand back and forth on the seashore, grinding them very fine.

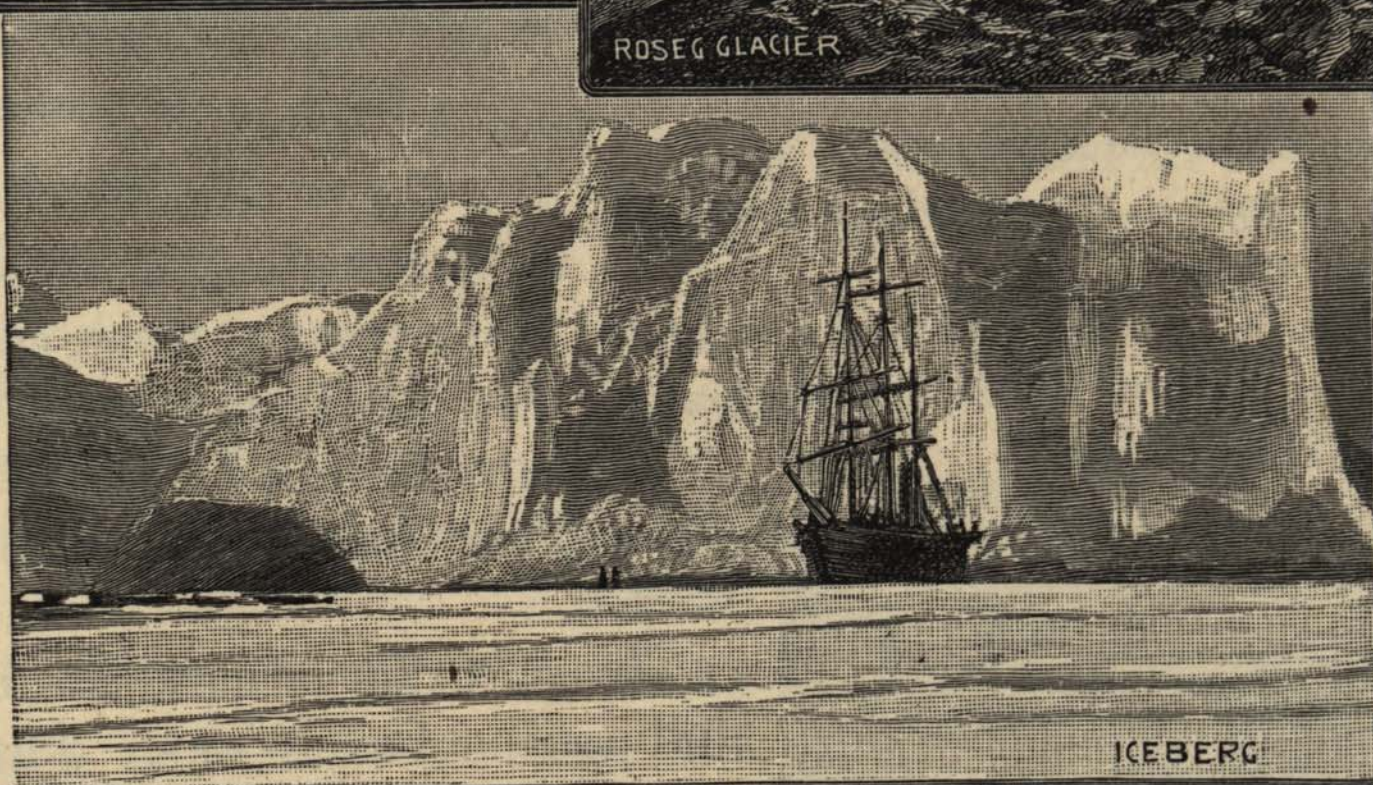
Winds mix the different parts of the atmosphere and keep it fresh and pure. They carry

GREENLAND
ICE SHEET

ROSEG GLACIER

water vapor from the sea to the land, and thus help to determine which parts of the land shall yield grain and fruits, and which parts shall remain barren.

Winds scatter the seeds of some kinds of plants,



ICEBERG

Waterspouts occur most frequently over the ocean near the equator.



ROCKS SMOOTHED BY ICE ACTION

18. Snow and Ice.

On some mountains, snow lies all the year and becomes very deep in the high valleys. Rain soaks into the snow, making it more compact. The heavy mass

and also aid in the flight of birds by lifting them, somewhat as kites are lifted. If it were not for currents of air there would be no sailing vessels nor windmills.

Winds are sometimes so violent that they wreck vessels and blow down trees and buildings.



DRUMLIN

slowly changes into ice. As the layers of ice on a mountain grow thicker they creep down the slopes. When the ice enters the lower and

warmer valleys, it gradually melts and forms brooks or rivers. Such a body of ice slowly moving down a slope is called a *glacier*.

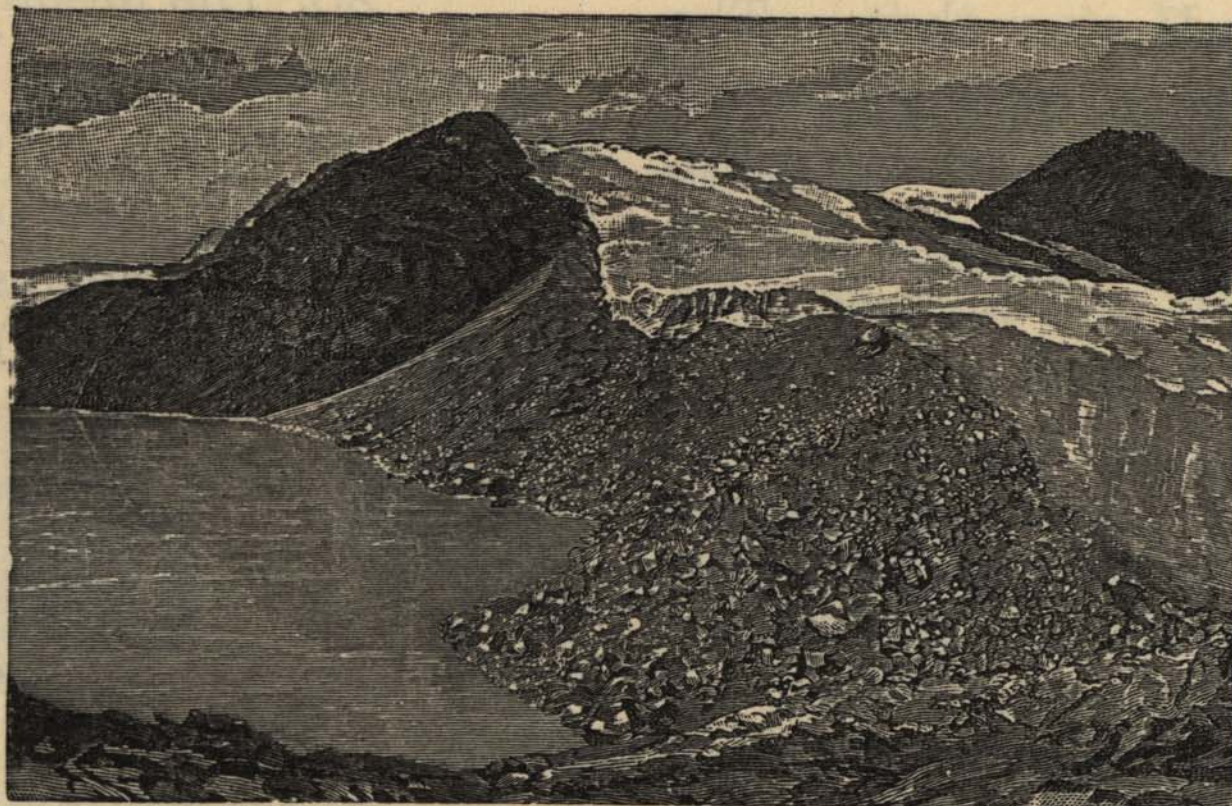
Glaciers carry along rock-waste, stones, gravel, sand and clay. The ice sometimes hollows out basins in the bottoms of valleys.

The heap of waste at the end of a glacier is a *terminal moraine*.

In former times there were glaciers in some parts of the world, where none are now found. Lakes abound in such regions. The water lies in the basins scraped out by the ice, or behind the barriers which the rock waste formed across old river valleys.

A large portion of Canada was at one time covered by glaciers that slowly moved southward till they melted. The formation of the lake district between Canada and the United States was changed by glacial action. The boulders found in Canada and the northern United States were deposited by the melting of the ice of the glacial period.

One of the pictures on page 18 shows a rocky ledge, smoothed and rounded by the action of ice. Another picture shows a long, low hill built of coarse rock waste



Rock Waste at the End of a Glacier.

that was left in this form by an ancient ice-sheet. Such a hill is called a *drumlin*. There are many old glacial lakes, smoothed rocks and drumlins in the eastern portion of Canada.

When glaciers push their way into the ocean, huge blocks of ice break off and float away. These floating masses are called *icebergs*.

Far away in the north is a land called Greenland. The interior of that land is covered with a thick sheet of ice and snow that moves very slowly towards the ocean on either side. Wide and deep glaciers from this ice-sheet creep into the sea, where huge blocks of ice break off and become icebergs.

19. Ocean Currents.

Winds blowing day after day for a long time against waves in the sea cause the surface water to drift slowly along, and thus form *ocean*

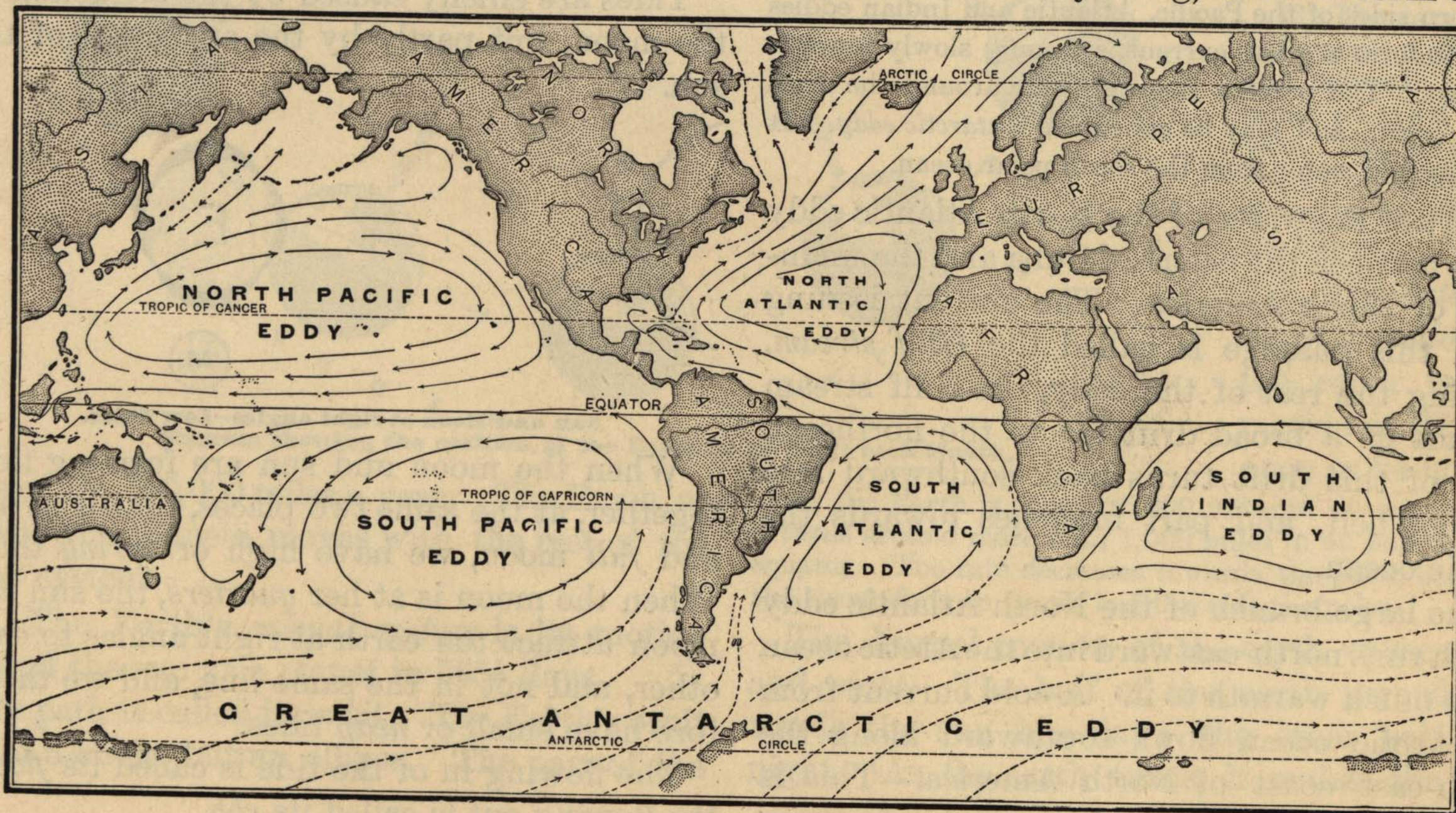


Chart of the Ocean Currents.

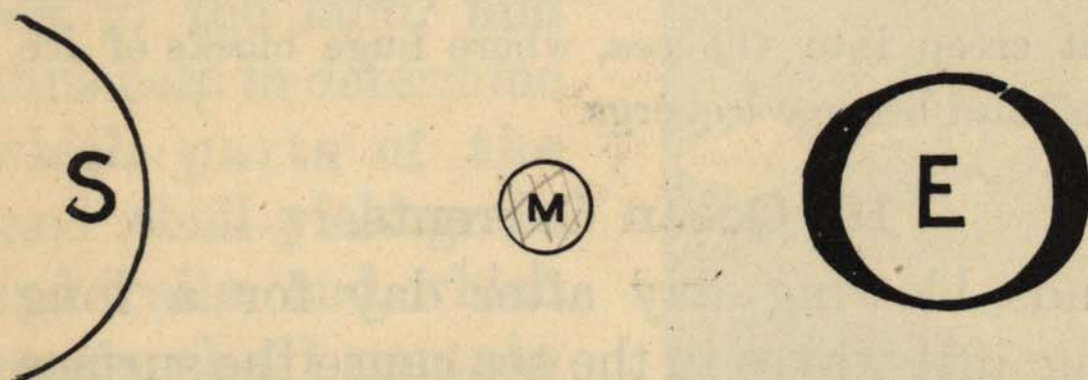
currents. These currents move much more slowly than the winds.

In each ocean the currents move in the general direction of the winds over them. The trade winds blow the ocean currents westward, and the westerly winds blow them eastward. The land prevents the currents from moving round and round the earth, and compels them to circle around, or eddy, in each ocean.

The Atlantic and Pacific oceans have eddies both north and south of the equator. The Indian ocean has a large eddy south of the equator, but the ocean currents north of the equator flow back and forth with the season winds, or monsoons, which prevail over that ocean.

The ocean eddies north of the equator move slowly in the direction in which the hands of a clock turn. The ocean eddies south of the equator move in the opposite direction, or against the hands of a clock.

In the southern cool belt the oceans spread all the way around the earth. There the drifting waters on the



Sun and Moon in conjunction—High Tides.

southern sides of the Pacific, Atlantic and Indian eddies unite to form a great current, sweeping slowly towards the east. The current flows entirely around the Antarctic ocean, and may be called the *Antarctic eddy*. It receives cold water from the south polar ocean.

Part of the water of the North Atlantic eddy flows between the island of Cuba and the mainland of North America. The current issuing from this passage is called the *Gulf stream*. Joining the rest of the eddy, the Gulf stream spreads as a broad drift far to the northeast. Part of this drift turns back southward into the hot belt, and part branches towards the Arctic ocean.

The large branch of the North Atlantic eddy which runs north-eastward into the Arctic ocean bears much warmth to it. A cold current from the Arctic ocean flows southward along the north-east coast of North America. This is called the Polar current. It carries icebergs

and fields of ice southward to the banks of Newfoundland.

20. The Moon and the Tides.

Twice each day the ocean slowly rises and falls on its shores. For about six hours the water creeps up the beaches and against the foot of cliffs. During the next six hours it slowly settles back. The rise and fall of the

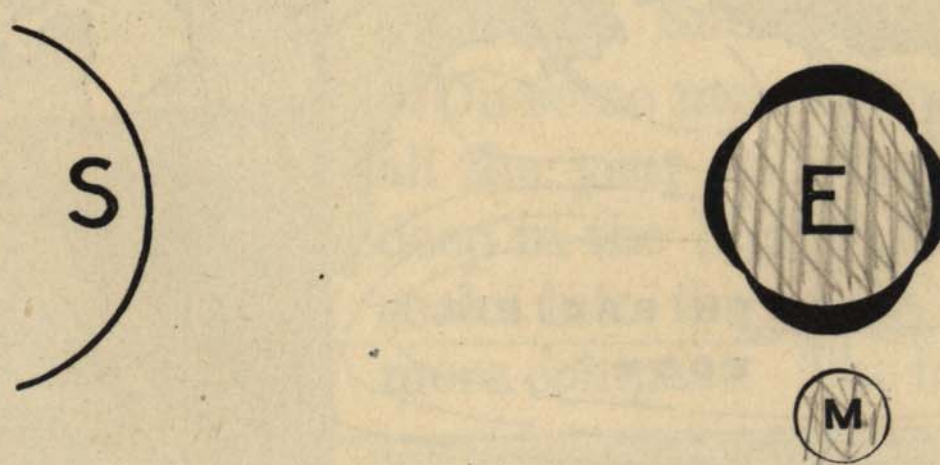


Sun and Moon in opposition—High Tides.

water is called the *tide*. The tide is not felt on the ocean, and is seldom very strong on headlands, but in narrowing bays the water rises ten, twenty, or thirty feet. In the Bay of Fundy the tide sometimes rises even to the height of fifty or sixty feet, when the wind blows strongly up the bay.

There is a tide on the side of the earth towards the moon, and another on the opposite side at the same time.

Tides are chiefly caused by the attraction of the moon, but partly by the attraction of the sun.



Sun and Moon at right angles—Low Tides.

When the moon and sun are forming tides together, at the same two places, that is at *new* and *full* moon, we have high or *spring* tides. When the moon is at her *quarters*, the sun and moon attract the earth at right angles to each other, and not in the same line, and we therefore have small or *neap* tides.

The flowing in of the tide is called its *flood*; the flowing out is called its *ebb*.

21. The Motions of the Earth.

The Earth has three motions: one through space as a part of the great Solar system of which it forms a part; one around the Sun; and one on its own axis.

1. The sun and the planets that revolve around it form the *Solar System*. The solar system as a whole moves through space at the

orbit of the earth nearest the sun is called *perihelion*; the part farthest from the sun is called *aphelion*. By examining the illustration on this page it will be seen that the Earth is nearest the sun in December.

We know that the Earth moves around the sun because:

(1) On September 23rd the sun rises due east at the equator, then till December 21st it rises farther and farther south, when it again begins to rise farther north until March 21st, when it is again due east. From March 21st to June 21st it rises farther and farther north, and then goes back so that on September 23rd it is again over the equator. The sun would rise in the same place every day in the year, if the Earth kept the same position.

(2) The stars gradually pass out of sight and reappear at the same period each year. This proves that the earth is changing its place in the heavens.

3. The *daily* or *diurnal motion* of the earth is its motion on its axis once in 24 hours.

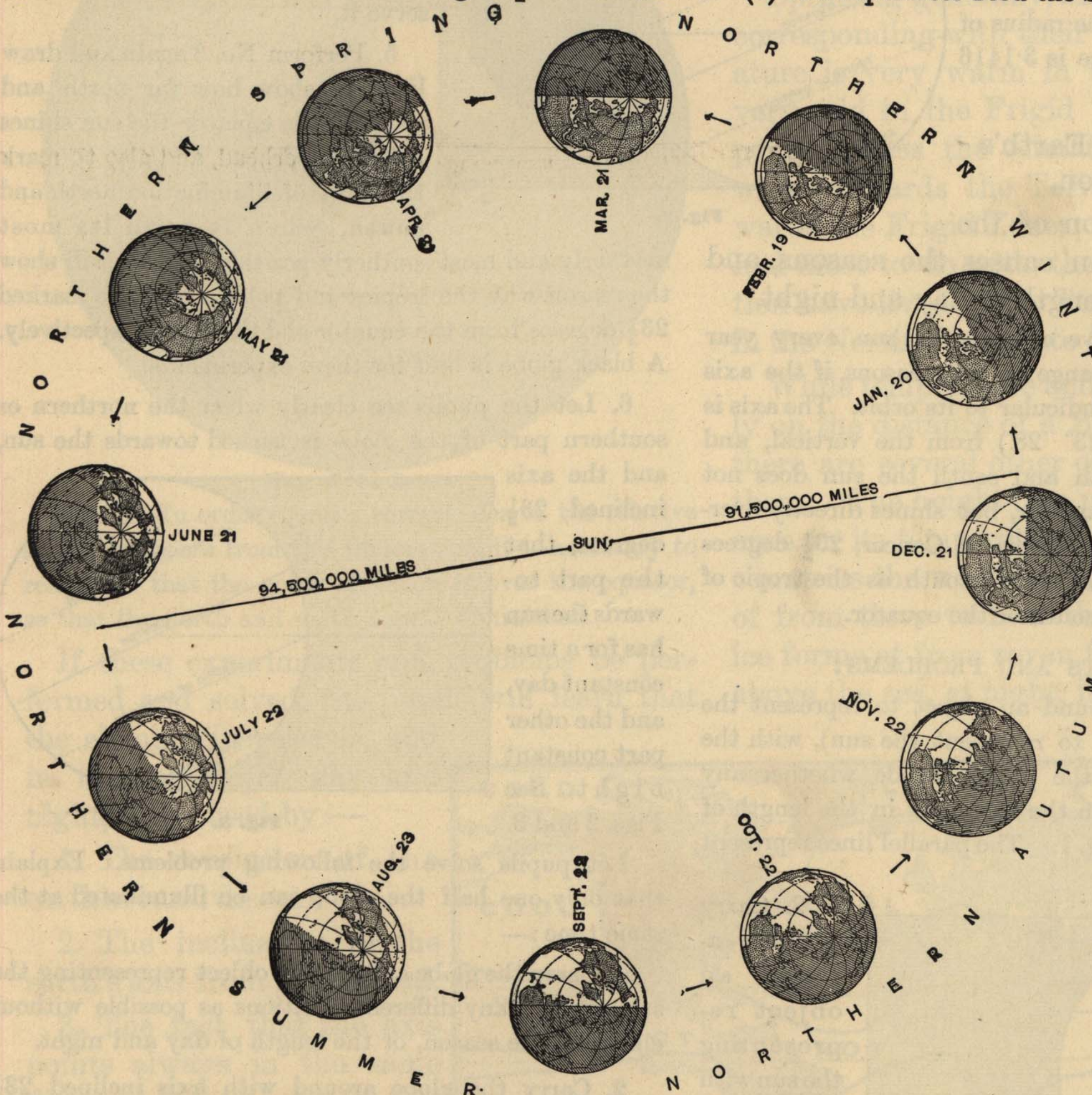


Diagram showing the position of the Earth in its Orbit each Month.

rate of 150,000,000 miles a year. The Earth, as one of the planets, moves with the rest of the solar system.

2. The Earth's *annual motion* is its motion around the sun as a planet in 365½ days.

Its path is called its *orbit*. The Earth's orbit is not a circle, but an ellipse. The part of the

As the Earth is about 25,000 miles in circumference it turns around more than 1,000 miles in an hour at the equator. The rate decreases towards the poles, because the circumference grows less towards the poles.

The diurnal motion of the earth causes *day* and *night*. The half of the earth turned towards the sun has day; the other half has night. As the earth turns, it makes the sun

appear to go round in the opposite direction.

The sun could cause day and night by moving round the earth, but as the sun is about 93,000,000 miles away from the earth, on an average, it would have to travel an enormous distance every day in order to do so.

Draw a diagram to illustrate the distance the sun would have to travel daily to cause day and night, and find the distance. (The distance from the sun is the radius of the circle; circumference is 3.1416 times the diameter).

22. Result of the Earth's Annual Motion.

The annual motion of the earth around the sun causes the seasons, and the changes in the length of day and night.

The earth might move around the sun every year without causing any change in the seasons, if the axis of the earth stood perpendicular to its orbit. The axis is inclined $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees ($23^{\circ} 28'$) from the vertical, and as it always points north and south the sun does not always shine over the equator, but shines directly overhead as far north as the tropic of Cancer, $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees north of the equator, and as far south as the tropic of Capricorn, $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees south of the equator.

EXPERIMENTS AND PROBLEMS:

1. Carry a globe around an object to represent the sun (a child may stand to represent the sun), with the axis vertical, and let the pupils decide whether any change will take place in the season or in the length of day and night. See Fig. 1. The parallel lines represent the sun's rays.

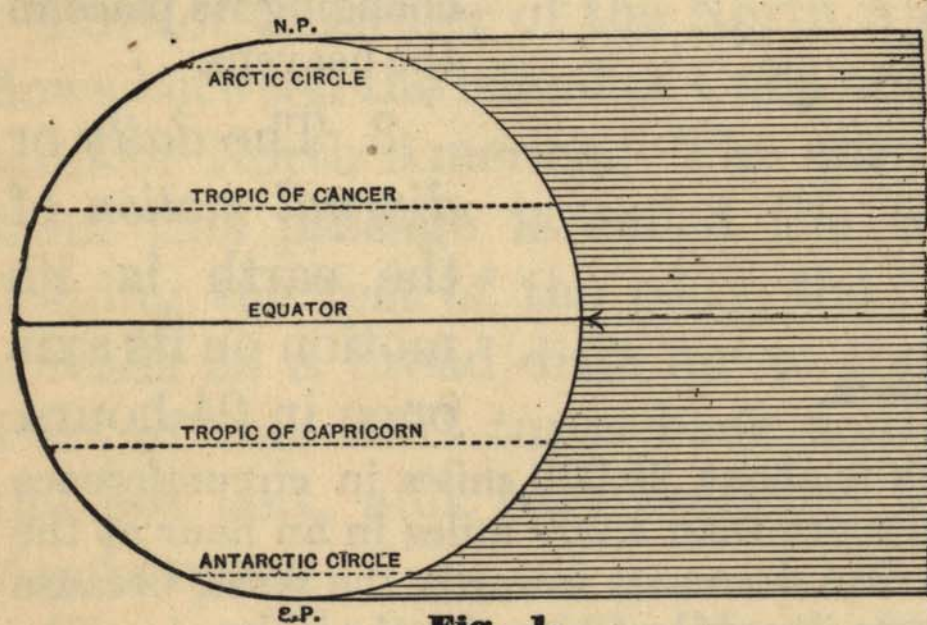


Fig. 1.

all the time. Let the pupils write down the conditions regarding light and heat as they observe them at four points; when the globe is south, west, north, and east of the object representing the sun.

2. Carry a globe around an object representing the sun with the axis horizontal and pointing north and south

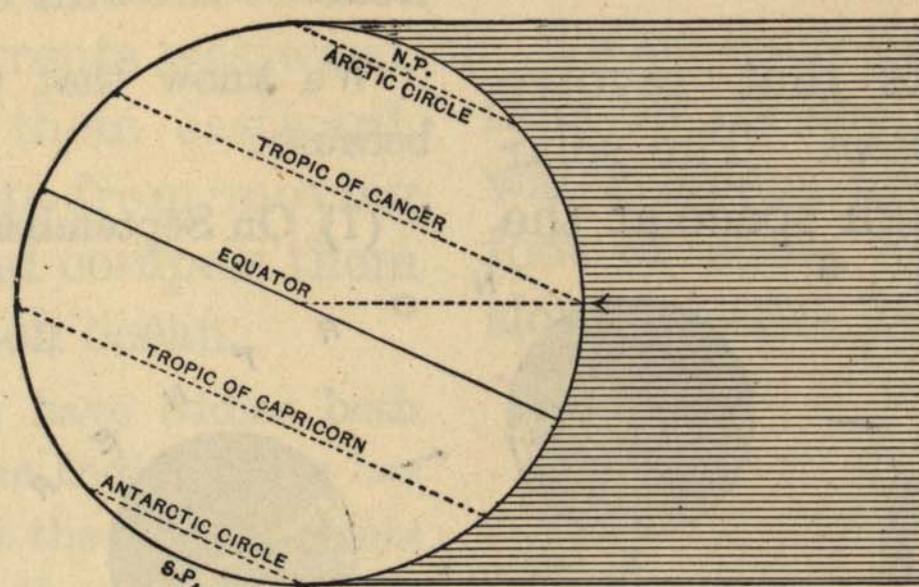


Fig. 2.

3. Carry a globe around with its axis inclined $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees from the vertical, and let the pupils write down the conditions as they observe them at the four points named in experiment 2.

4. Carry a globe around with its axis still inclined $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, but keep the northern part of the globe turned towards the sun all the time. Let pupils write down the result as they observe it.

5. Perform No. 3 again, and draw lines to show how far north and south of the equator the sun shines directly overhead, and also to mark the limit of illumination north and south, when it is in its most northerly and most southerly positions. This will show the reason why the tropics and polar circles are marked $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees from the equator and the poles respectively. A black globe is best for these experiments.

6. Let the pupils see clearly when the northern or southern part of the globe is turned towards the sun, and the axis inclined $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, that the part towards the sun has for a time constant day, and the other part constant night. See Figs. 2 and 3.

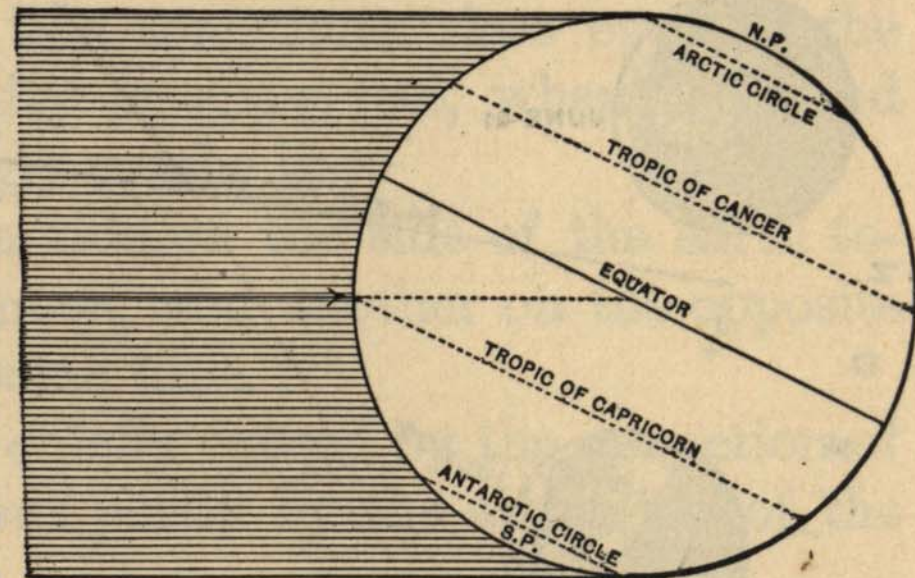


Fig. 3.

Let pupils solve the following problems. Explain that only one half the globe can be illuminated at the same time:—

1. Carry the globe around the object representing the sun, in as many different positions as possible without changing the season, or the length of day and night.

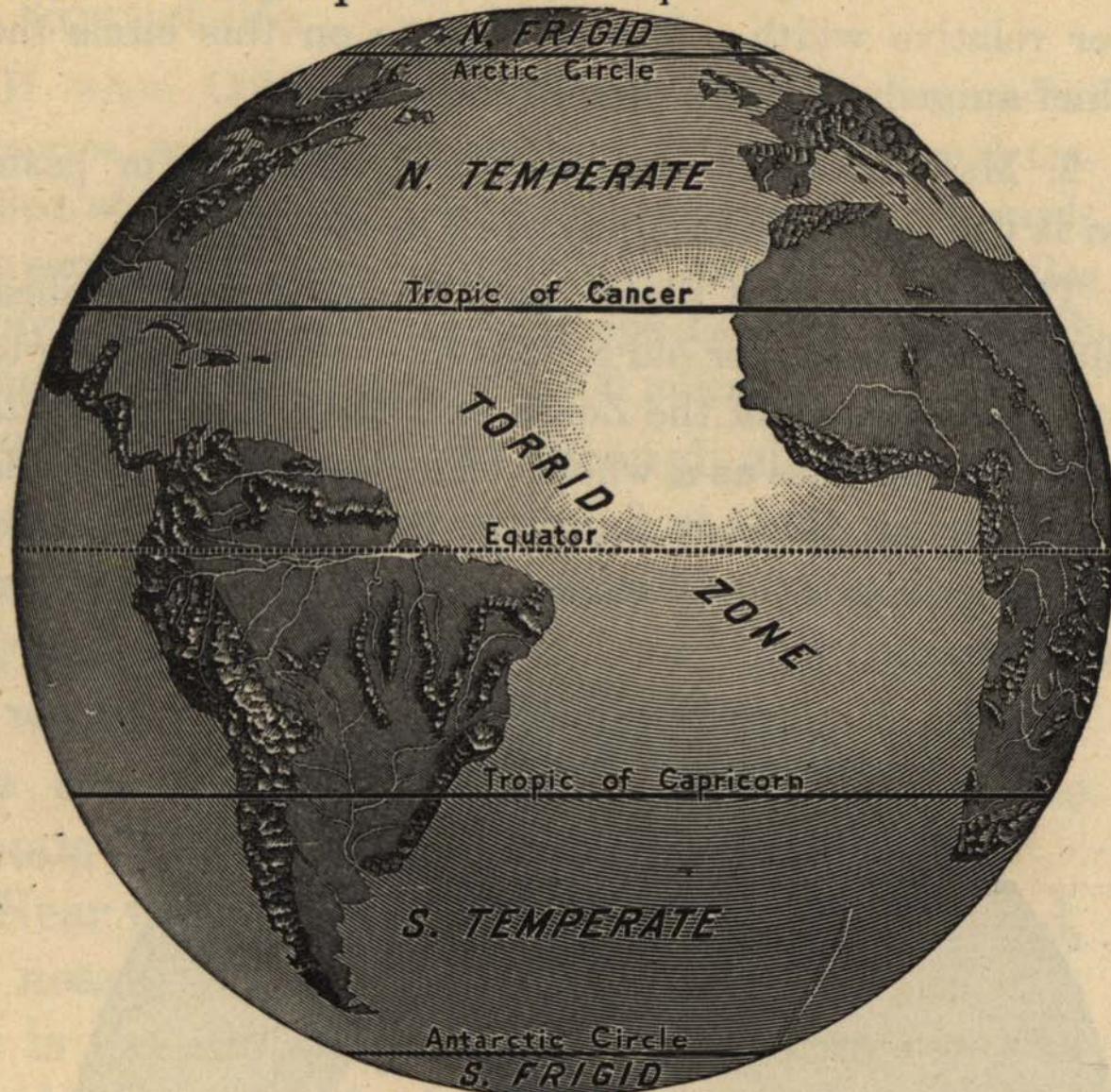
2. Carry the globe around with axis inclined $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees from the vertical, and yet cause no change in season or in length of day or night.

3. Carry the globe with the axis horizontal, and yet cause no change in season or in length of day or night.

4. Carry the globe around with the axis so inclined as to place the tropics ten degrees from the equator. Vary this question by substituting other numbers for ten.

5. If the tropics are ten degrees north and south of the equator, where will the polar circles be placed?

6. If the axis were horizontal, and always pointed north and south, where would the tropics be placed, and where would the polar circles be placed?



Map of the Zones.

NOTE.—In order to get a correct idea of the relative size of the zones from this illustration, it is necessary to remember that the point of vision is over the equator, so that the north and south appear diminished.

If these experiments and problems be performed and solved, the pupils will learn that the changes in seasons, and in the length of day and night, are caused by:—

1. The revolution of the earth around the sun.

2. The inclination of the earth's axis from the vertical.

3. The fact that the axis points always in the same direction.

23. The Zones and Climate.

The two *tropics* and the two *polar circles* divide the earth into five belts or *Zones*.

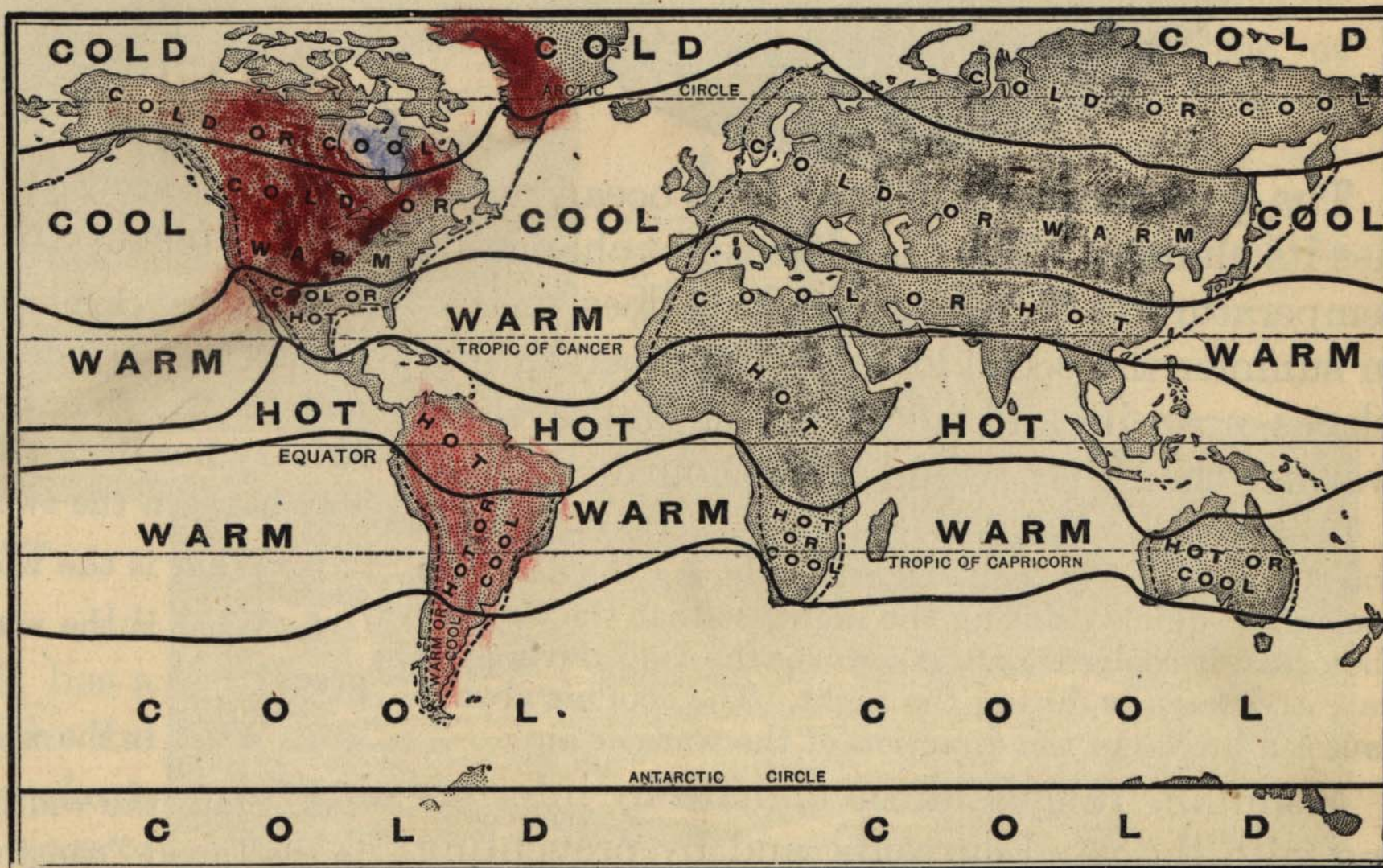
Between the tropics is the *Torrid Zone*.

Between the Tropic of Cancer and the Arctic Circle is the *North Temperate Zone*. Between the Tropic of Capricorn and the Antarctic Circle is the *South Temperate Zone*.

Between the Arctic Circle and the North Pole is the *North Frigid Zone*. Between the Antarctic Circle and the South Pole is the *South Frigid Zone*.

Speaking generally, the Zones have climates corresponding with their names. The temperature is very warm in the Torrid Zone, and very cold in the Frigid Zones. In the Temperate Zones the climate is more moderate; warm towards the Torrid Zone and cold towards the Frigid Zones. The people who have had most to do with the progress of civilization have lived in the Temperate Zones, chiefly in the North Temperate Zone.

While temperature and climate depend chiefly on the distance of a place from the equator, there are several other conditions that modify them. The height of a place has a great influence on its temperature. Even in the hottest countries the weather is delightful at a height of from three to four thousand feet, and thin ice forms at from seven to eight thousand feet above the sea, at night, in the hottest season.

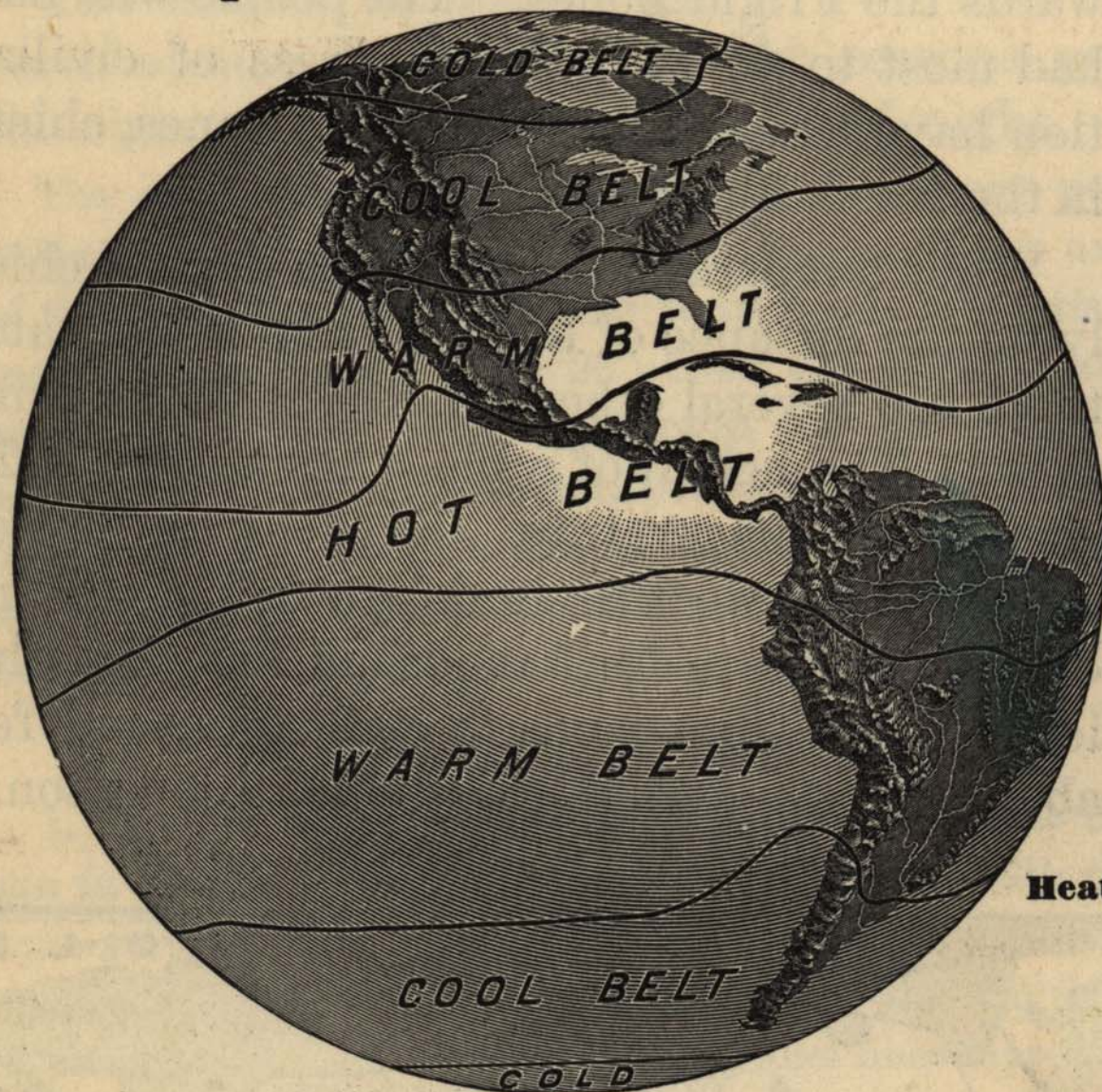


Heat Belts and their Seasons.

Ocean currents modify the climate very much. The warm currents from the torrid zone flow towards the western side of the continents in the northern hemisphere. (See map of the currents, page 19).

The western part of Canada is much warmer than the eastern part at the same distance from the equator, because the west is warmed by the Pacific current from the torrid zone, and the east is cooled by the ice-laden current from the north.

Winds affect climate. Those blowing steadily from the direction of the equator make the temperature warmer, and those from the direction of the poles make it colder.



Heat Belts.

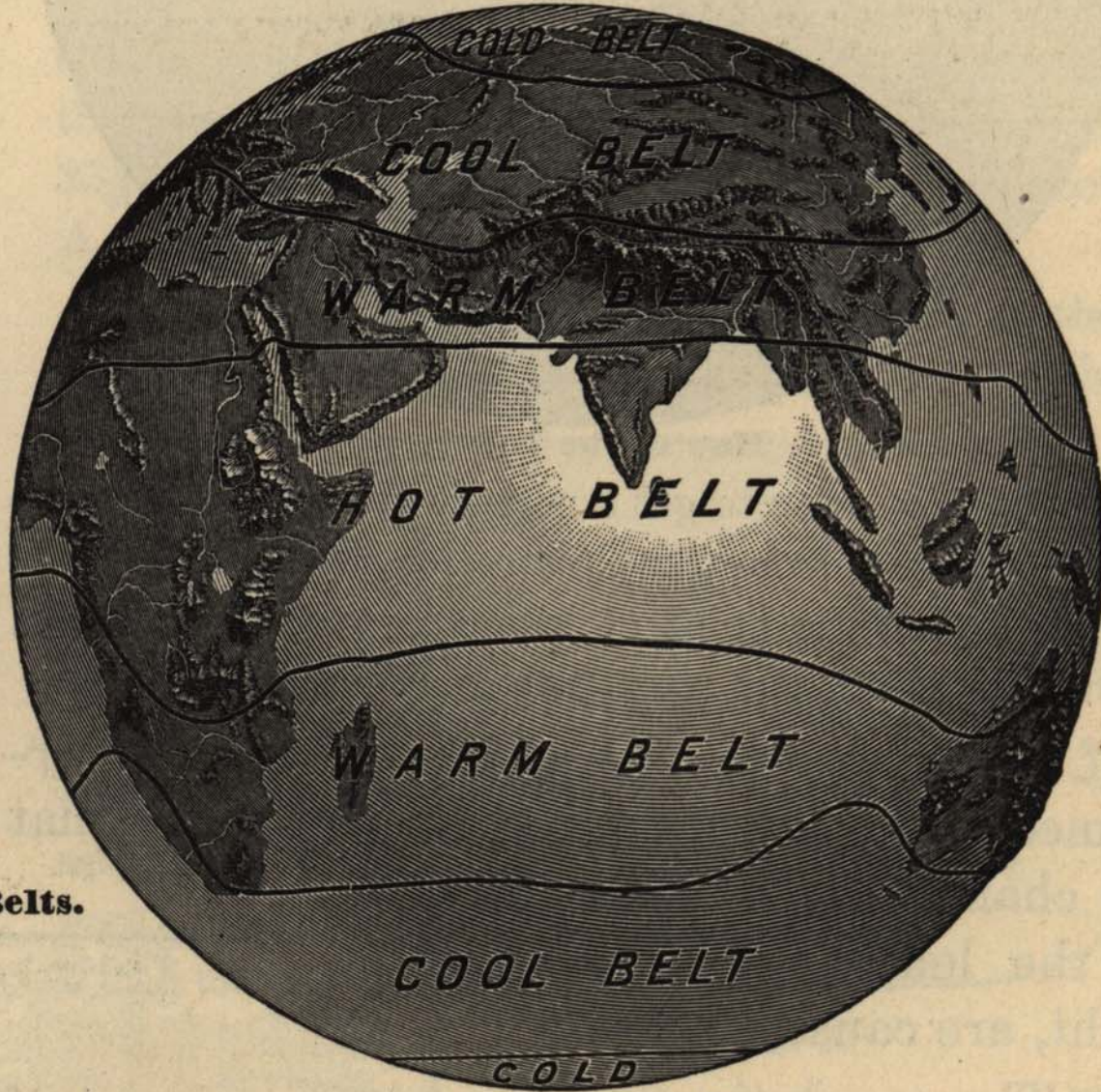
The nature of the soil has some influence upon climate.

PROBLEMS.

1. Make a large circle and divide it into Zones of proper relative width. Draw or paste on this circle the chief animals that are found in each Zone.

2. Make a circle as in question 1, and draw or paste on it the leading plants produced in each Zone.

The animals and plants may be cut from magazines, illustrated papers, or old toy books. It is interesting to have a large map of the Zones and their chief products made by the class as a whole. The Zones may be made in paper of different colors, or drawn on an unused blackboard, and the animals and plants pasted or drawn on them.



The proximity of a place to the ocean modifies its climate. The ocean does not change its temperature so rapidly as the land does, so that in summer the ocean lowers the temperature of places near it, and in winter it makes them warmer than they would be without it.

Land and sea breezes occur because the land gets warm more quickly than the ocean during the day, and cools more quickly during the night, so that the air over the ocean is cooler than the air over the land during the day, and warmer during the night. The cool air always causes a breeze in the direction of the warmer air.

Mountain ranges affect climate by interfering with the wind currents, and by preventing the free distribution of rain.

3. How many degrees are there in the part of a circle running from the North to the South Pole?

4. If the circumference of a circle contains 360 degrees, how many degrees are there between the equator and the North or South Pole? The *Equator* is an imaginary line drawn around the earth east and west midway between the two Poles.

5. What is the width of the Torrid Zone in degrees?

6. What is the width of each Temperate Zone in degrees?

7. What is the width of each Frigid Zone in degrees?

8. State the width in degrees, of the Earth's surface in the Torrid Zone, in the two Temperate Zones together, and in the two Frigid Zones.

24. Belts of Heat.

The sun is a hot globe more than a million times as large as the earth. This globe is very far away, yet it keeps the earth warm enough to support life.

If when Columbus set sail on his first voyage to America, some object could have left the sun and travelled at the rate of twenty-five miles an hour towards the earth, that object would still be several million miles away from the earth. The average distance of the earth from the sun is about 93,000,000 miles.

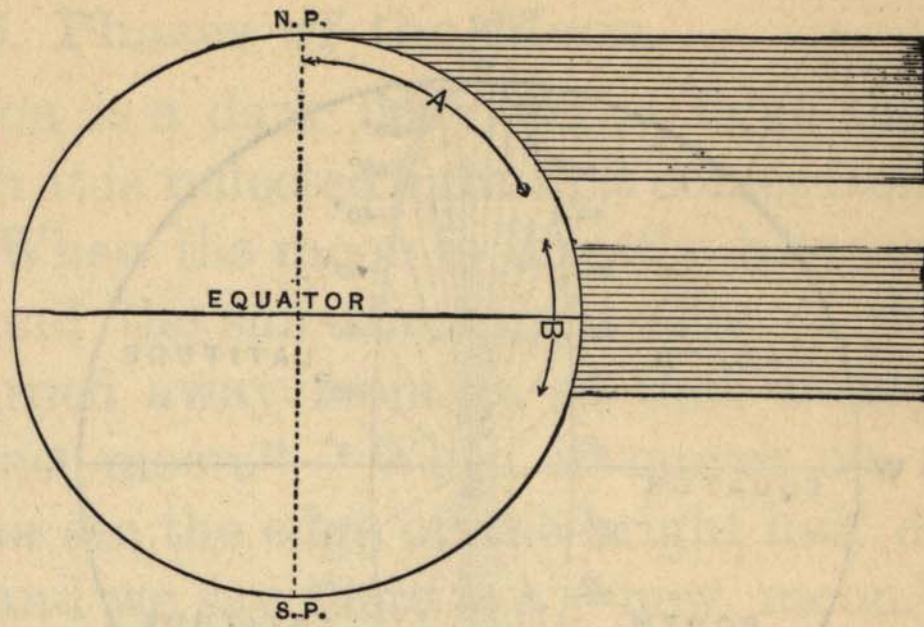
The sun's rays shine through clear air without warming it very much, but they warm the clouds and the dust in the air, and also the surface of the land and the sea. All these help to warm the air about them, but the land and the sea warm the air much more than the clouds and the dust do.

Near the equator the sun's rays are vertical, or nearly so, at noon every day. There the air is hot all the year, except high above the sea level. The region of hot air is called the *hot belt*.

Around the poles the rays are very slanting, and the air is always cold or cool. The polar regions are known as the *cold belts*.

Between the *hot belt* and the *cold belts*, there are other belts neither so hot nor so cold. On either side of the hot belt lies a belt of land and sea on which the sun's rays fall with but little slant. We call these two belts the *warm belts*.

This illustration shows how the sun shines on different parts of the earth. Over the line *B* all the rays are nearly vertical. Over the line *A* the



rays strike the earth with greater slant. As many rays shine on *B* as on *A*, but the slanting rays spread over the greater surface, and therefore cannot heat it so much. The more nearly vertical the rays are the greater their heating power.

Between the warm belt and the cold belt, on each side of the equator, lies another belt on which the rays fall with a great deal of slant. These two belts are the *cool belts*.

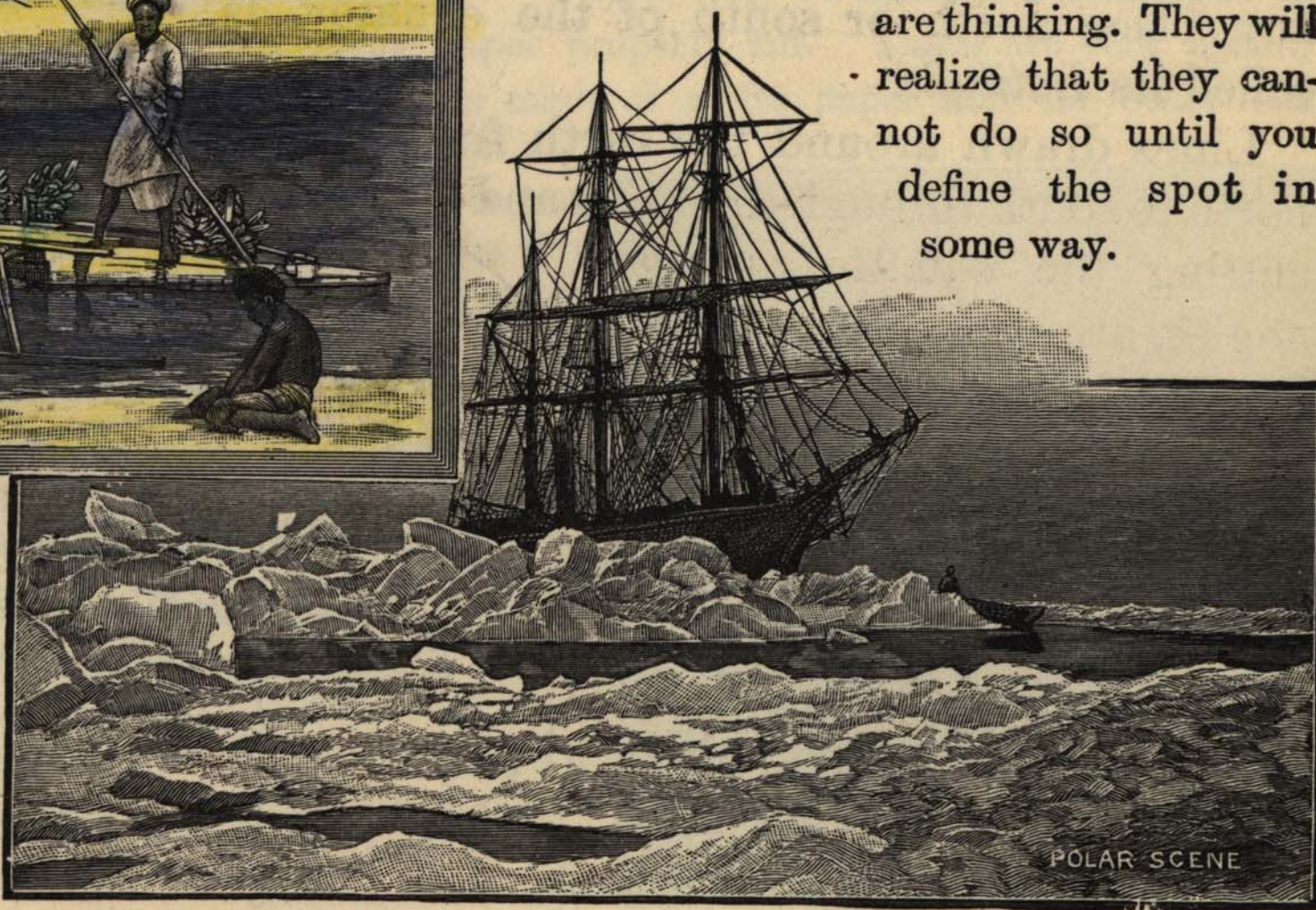
25. Latitude and Longitude.

In order to be able to locate places accurately on maps and globes it is necessary to fix their distance north or south of some line and also their distance east or west of some line.

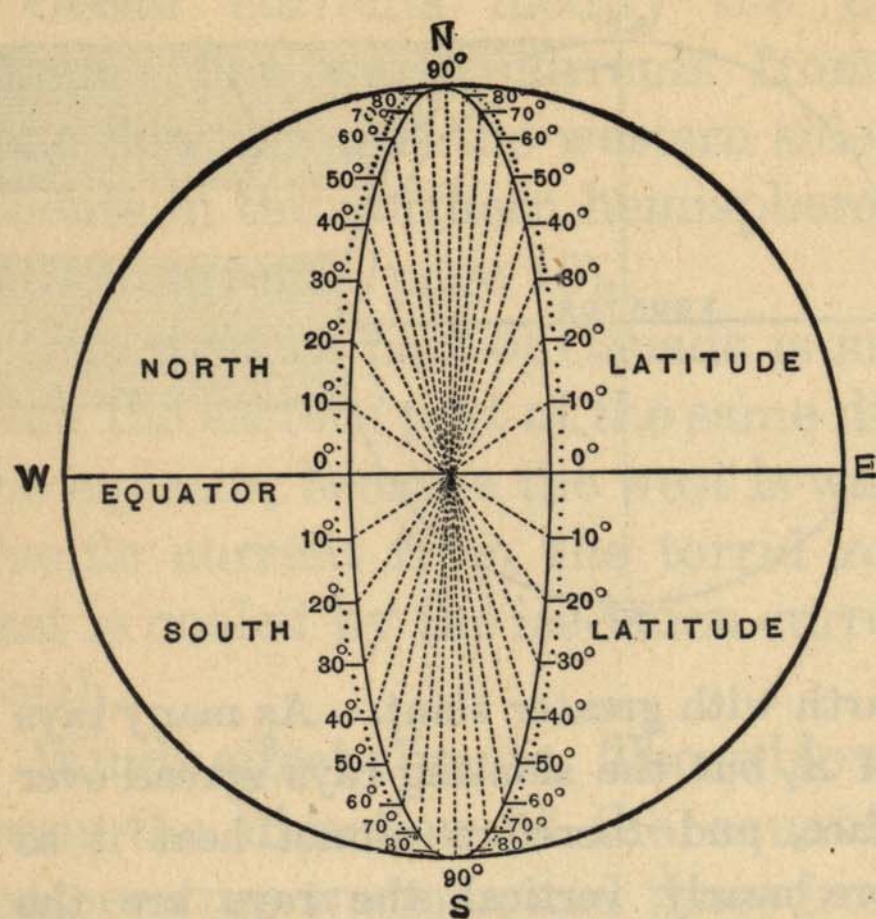
This may be shown by ruling a large square on the blackboard and asking the pupils to locate a spot in it of which you are thinking. They will realize that they cannot do so until you define the spot in some way.



Near the Equator.



Caught in an Ice Floe—Baffin Bay.



Degrees of Latitude.

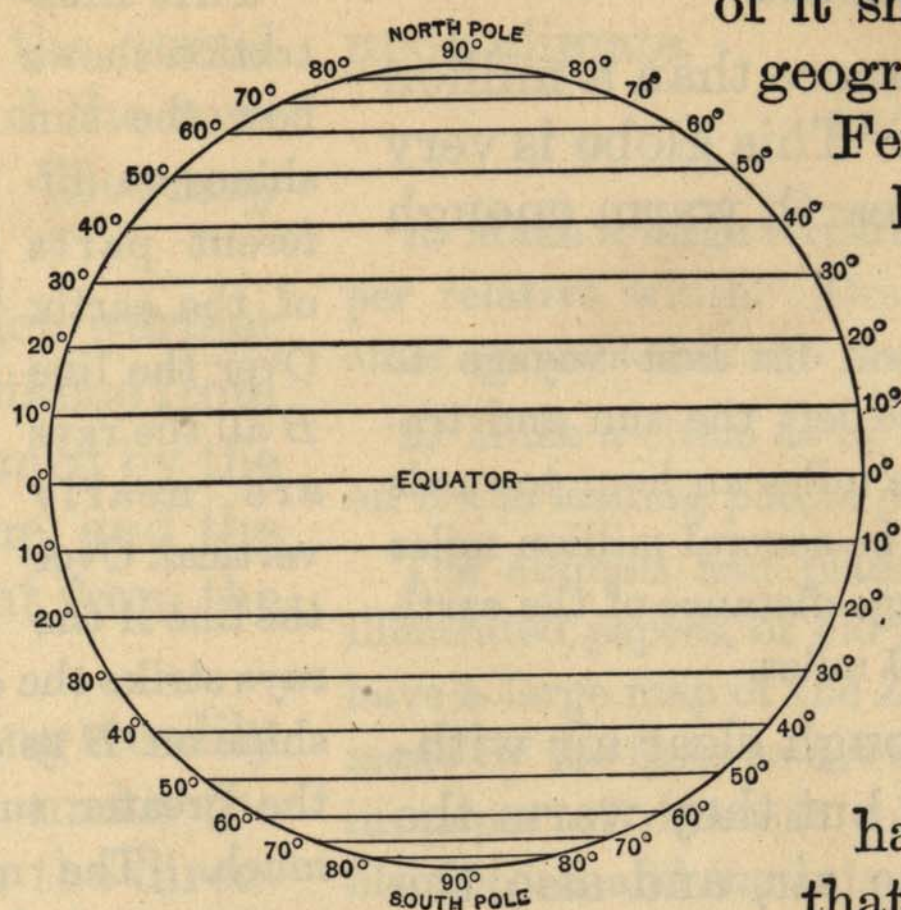
Draw the vertical diameter of the square and tell them the spot is six inches to the right of that line. Some may attempt to fix the exact spot now, but again they will fail, because it might be anywhere on a line six inches to the right of the diameter. Draw the other diameter and fix the point at, say, six inches to the right of the first diameter, and eight inches above the second diameter. They will then be able to locate the exact spot. In this way they will learn the necessity for two base lines to count distances from on maps and globes. They should then be trained to use the numbers at the sides and top and bottom of the maps in finding the location of places indicated by specifying their latitude and longitude.

The line from which distance north or south is measured is the *Equator*. The distance of any place north or south of the equator, is called its *Latitude*.

Lines drawn around the earth from north to south through the Poles and cutting the equator at right angles, are called *Meridians*.

The meridian of any place is an imaginary line running due north and south through the place.

The makers of geographies in England and America usually take the Meridian of Greenwich, near London, as the line from which the distances of places east or west



Parallels of Latitude.

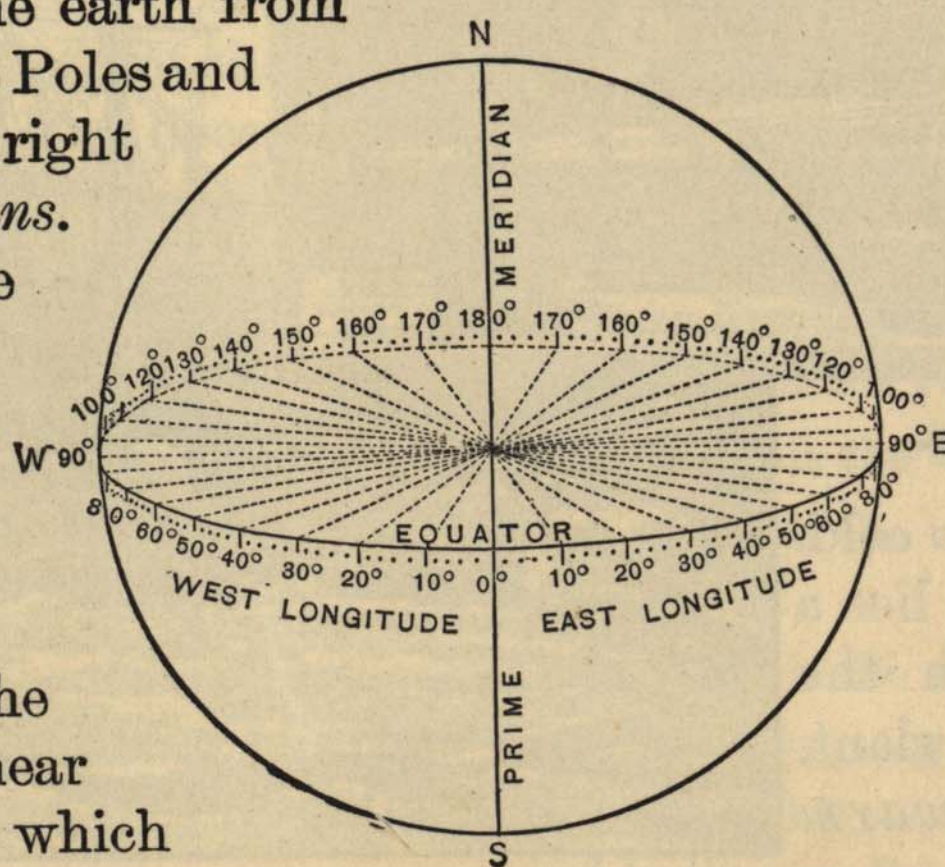
No place can be more than 90 degrees north or south of the *equator*, and, therefore, latitude is measured only one quarter of the distance around the earth. If we were at the North Pole we should get nearer the equator, if we moved in any direction. Similarly, if we moved in any direction from the South Pole, we must be going northward, and therefore nearer the equator.

We might know that a place is situated 50 degrees north of the equator without being able to fix its location accurately. It may be anywhere on the line running around the earth 50 degrees north of the equator. But if we know that a place is 50 degrees north of the equator, and 120 degrees west of the first mer-

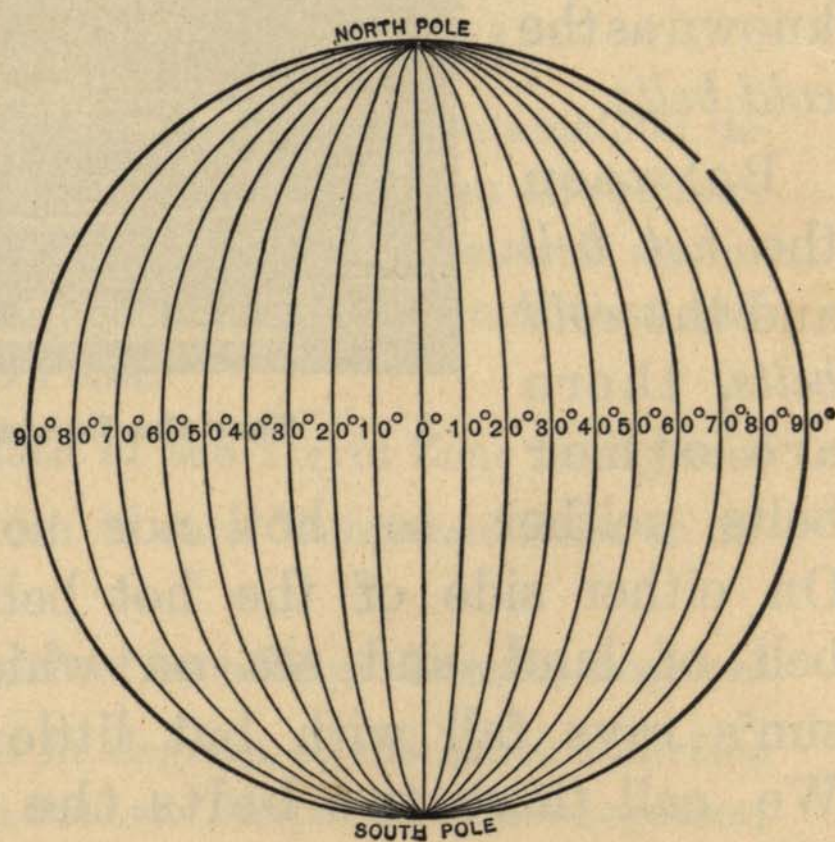
of it shall be measured. German geographers take the meridian of Ferro, one of the Canary Islands, as their *first meridian*, and French geographers run their first meridian through Paris.

Longitude is the distance in degrees of any place east or west of the *first meridian*.

Longitude is measured half way around the earth, so that a place may be in 180 degrees east or west *longitude*.



Degrees of Longitude.



Meridians of Longitude.

idian, we know exactly *where* to find it. This is the use of *Latitude* and *Longitude*.

PROBLEMS.

1. If one man is 180 degrees east longitude, and another is 180 degrees west longitude, how many degrees are they apart, if they are both on the equator?



The Crescent Moon.

2. In 1, how far would they be apart if one was on the equator and the other on the tropic of Cancer?

3. How many degrees are two men apart, who are on the same

meridian, if one is 30 degrees north latitude, and the other 40 degrees south latitude?

4. Where would a man be if he had no latitude or longitude?

5. Where would you be if your latitude should grow less in whatever direction you walked?

6. Find the latitude and longitude of the place where you live.

7. If it takes 24 hours for the sun to pass around the whole earth, it takes it one hour to go 15 degrees, or 4 minutes to go one degree. Find the difference in time between places having 45 degrees difference in longitude.

8. What is the difference between the time of two places, one of which is in 25 degrees west longitude, and the other in 32 degrees west longitude?

9. What is the difference between the time of two places, both 50 degrees west longitude, if one is 20 degrees north latitude, and the other 22 degrees south latitude?

10. What is the longitude of a place whose time is $3\frac{1}{2}$ hours slower than the time of a place in 25 degrees east longitude?

When we stand at the equator, the North Star is in our horizon. When we go north, the North Star ascends degree by degree, as we get away from the equator. The height of the North Star in degrees tells us our latitude.

11. Why is there is a difference between sun-time and standard time in most places?

12. Some children have to go to school earlier and some later than formerly, on account of the use of standard time. Explain this.

26. Phases of the Moon.

The moon is a dark body. The light that shines from it is reflected light that comes from the sun. When the moon is directly between the earth and the sun the bright side of the moon is turned away from us, so that we say there is "no moon." When it moves on a little we can see the edge of the bright half of the moon and we say there is a "new moon." When it has moved to the side of the earth away from the sun, we can see the whole of the bright half of the moon, and we call this "full moon."

The moon moves around the earth in a little less than a month, and so we have "new" and "full" moon thirteen times a year.

The earth and moon may be drawn on the blackboard in the four positions, as at new moon, full moon, and the quarters. Assuming that the sunlight comes from the right or left the proper half of the moon may be drawn in white, and with the earth in the centre the pupils can see the portion of the bright side that is visible from the earth in each case.

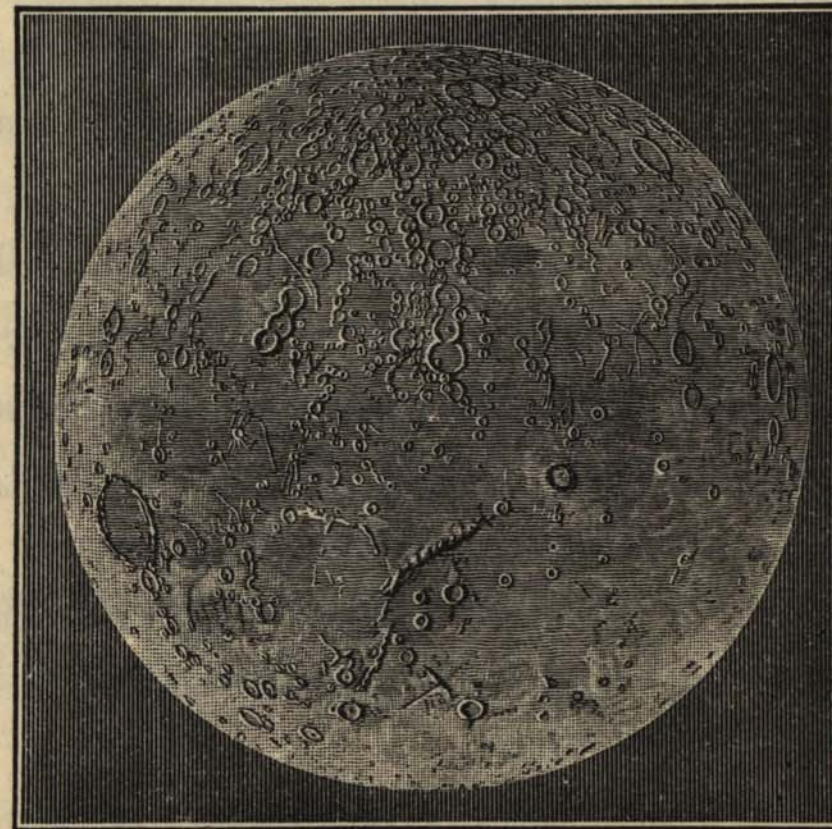
Experiment: Take a small black globe and make one half of it white with chalk. Carry it around the class keeping the white side always in the same direction, towards the place where the sun is supposed to be. Let the pupils write down the conditions they observe at the four leading points in the moon's orbit.

Note: A football, or a pumpkin, may be used instead of a globe. Pupils may be trained to make globes by pasting paper properly cut. These are very useful, if one half is made of white paper and the other half of black paper.

1. At what time of the day does the moon rise, at "full" moon?

2. In what part of the heavens is the "new" moon always seen?

3. Do the horns of the "new" moon point in the same direction as the horns of the "old" moon.



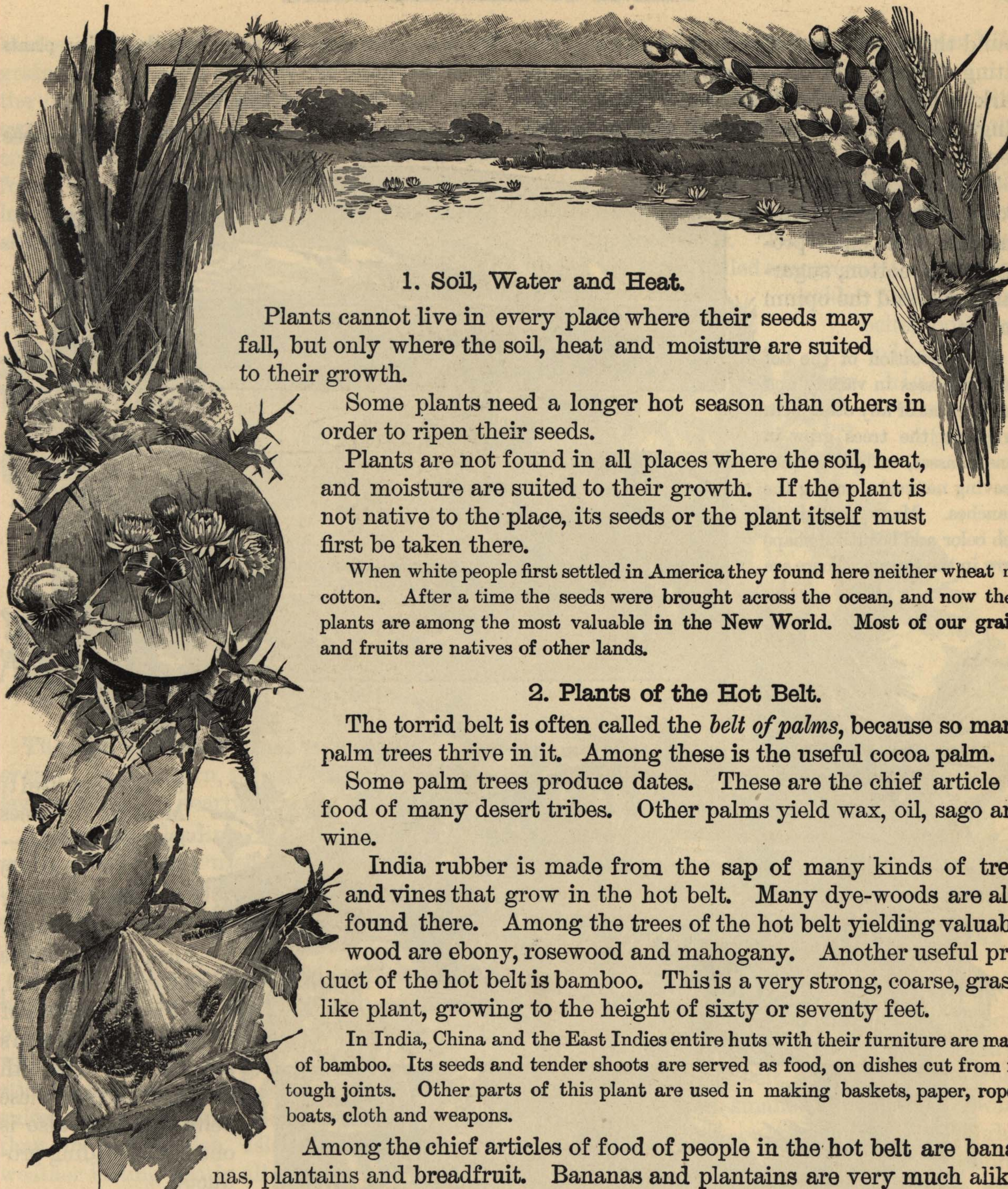
Map of the Moon.



PLANTS.

1. Can you name two plants that thrive in wet soil? Two that thrive in sandy soil?
2. Where do water lilies grow? Do you know where pussy willows are found?
3. What flowers have you seen growing in the woods?
4. What flowers grow best in the open fields?
5. Compare the growth of the same flowers in the woods and in open places.
6. Of what use are long roots to trees? Would short roots be as useful?
7. Try to find a plant growing on the bark of some tree; on stones; on fences; on the roofs of old houses.
8. Name two trees that drop their leaves in autumn. Name two that hold their leaves all winter. When do cone-bearing trees drop their leaves?
9. Of what use is the tuft on the thistle seed?
10. Name as many plants as you can that have winged seeds, and others that have hooked seeds. Which of these kinds of seeds grow on trees? Why?
11. Do you know of any seeds that are blown about because they are so light?
12. Try to find a seed that will float on the water. How might that seed be carried from one place to another?
13. Name some birds that feed on seeds; on fruits.
14. In what ways may seeds scatter over level land? How may they be carried over high land? Across rivers?
15. Name two plants that yield fibres from which cloth is made. Name three plants that are used in making medicine.
16. Name an enemy of each of these plants: potato, tomato, wheat, apple.
17. What is tar? What is India rubber?

NOTE.—Study the maps of the Heat Belts and their Seasons on pages 23 and 24, and learn what countries are in the Hot belt, the Warm belts, the Cool belts, and the Cold belts.



1. Soil, Water and Heat.

Plants cannot live in every place where their seeds may fall, but only where the soil, heat and moisture are suited to their growth.

Some plants need a longer hot season than others in order to ripen their seeds.

Plants are not found in all places where the soil, heat, and moisture are suited to their growth. If the plant is not native to the place, its seeds or the plant itself must first be taken there.

When white people first settled in America they found here neither wheat nor cotton. After a time the seeds were brought across the ocean, and now these plants are among the most valuable in the New World. Most of our grains and fruits are natives of other lands.

2. Plants of the Hot Belt.

The torrid belt is often called the *belt of palms*, because so many palm trees thrive in it. Among these is the useful cocoa palm.

Some palm trees produce dates. These are the chief article of food of many desert tribes. Other palms yield wax, oil, sago and wine.

India rubber is made from the sap of many kinds of trees and vines that grow in the hot belt. Many dye-woods are also found there. Among the trees of the hot belt yielding valuable wood are ebony, rosewood and mahogany. Another useful product of the hot belt is bamboo. This is a very strong, coarse, grass-like plant, growing to the height of sixty or seventy feet.

In India, China and the East Indies entire huts with their furniture are made of bamboo. Its seeds and tender shoots are served as food, on dishes cut from its tough joints. Other parts of this plant are used in making baskets, paper, ropes, boats, cloth and weapons.

Among the chief articles of food of people in the hot belt are bananas, plantains and breadfruit. Bananas and plantains are very much alike—the latter being slightly the coarser.

Breadfruit grows to about the size of a child's head. The fruit is often baked, and sometimes it is ground to flour after being baked. On many islands in the Pacific, bananas and breadfruit are almost the only food of the natives.

The East Indies and many other parts of the hot belt are very rich in spices. There are

found the sweet-scented kernels of nutmeg, the biting flower-buds of the clove, the fragrant bark of the cinnamon, the hot root-stock of the ginger, and the stinging, dried berries of the pepper.

This belt supplies the world with coffee. Among the other chief products are cotton, sugarcane, rice, and the opium poppy.

The vegetation of the hot belt surpasses in variety and density that of any other belt. In places the trees grow in dense masses, with long vines weaving networks among the branches. Many orchids of rich color and beautiful shape grow in the forests. There are

also tree ferns, huge lilies and countless other plants which we see only in hothouses.

3. Plants of the Warm Belts.

The plants of the warm belts resemble those

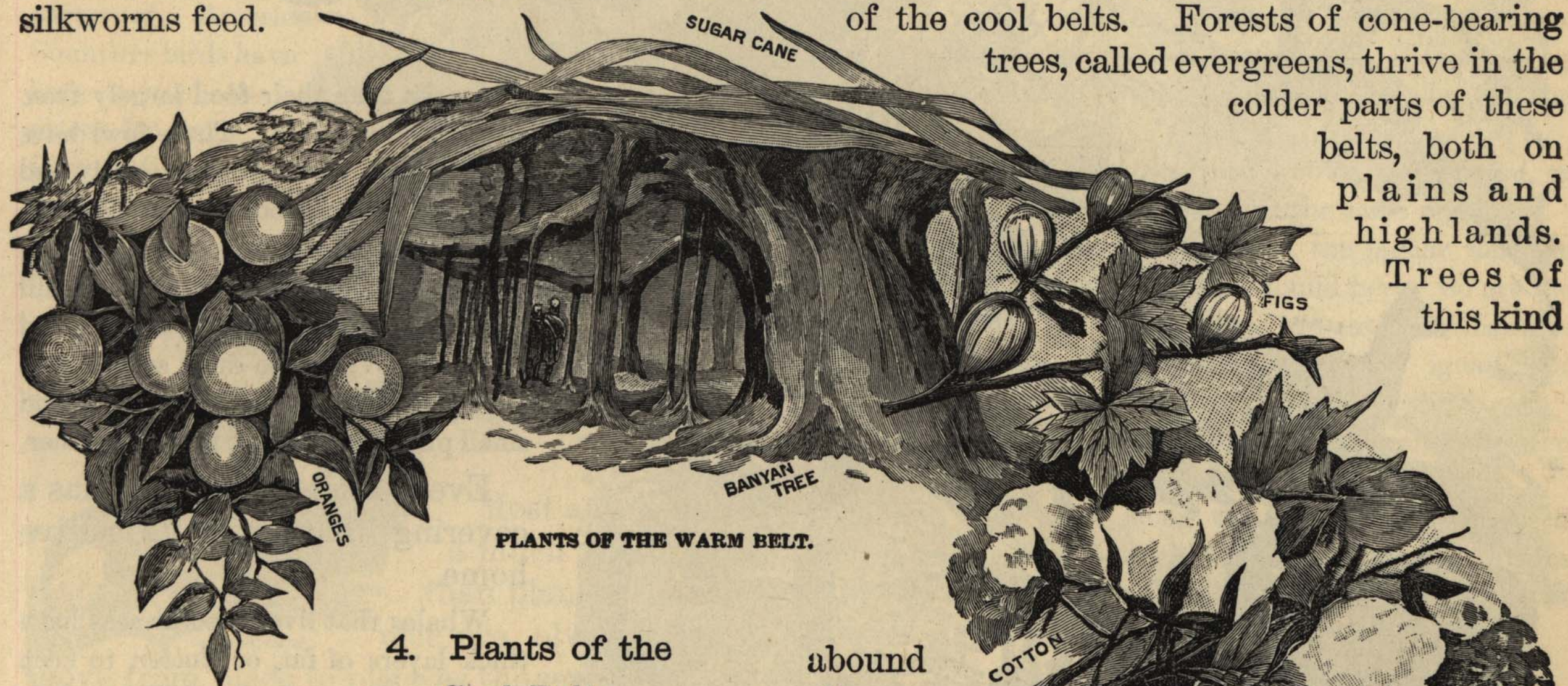


in the hot belt. Most of the trees are evergreens,—that is, they do not shed their leaves in winter. Figs, dates, olives and grapes abound, and large groves of oranges and lemons are a source of wealth in many parts of these belts. Cotton also is one of the leading products.

The most productive cotton regions in the world are the warm plains of the United

Plants of the Heat Belts.

States, India and Egypt. Nearly all kinds of grain thrive in parts of the warm belts. Among the other valuable plants are tea, sugar-cane, sweet-potato, and tobacco. Most of the tea comes from south-east Asia. There is also found the teak tree, which supplies valuable lumber, and the mulberry, upon whose leaves silkworms feed.



4. Plants of the Cool Belts.

The cool belts are often called the *belts of grains*. Indian corn, wheat, rye, oats and barley are raised in nearly all parts of these belts.

Among the leading nations, wheat is the grain most widely used for food. The crops that supply the markets of the world are raised chiefly in the prairies and other plains of the cool belts.

Corn is another valuable grain. It was raised by the Indians long before the white man came to this country. Corn is a rapid grower and is wide-spread over the cool belts and the lands still nearer the equator. This grain is better suited to the prairies having hot summers, than to the British Isles with their mild weather lasting nearly all the year.

Rye, oats and barley are hardy grains and thrive in most parts of the cool belts.

Barley is perhaps the most wide-spread of grains. It grows both upon the Arctic shore

of Norway and in the valley of the upper Nile, not far from the equator.

Flax and hemp thrive in the cool belts. Next to cotton, flax is the most valuable of the fibre plants.

Many hard-wood trees, such as the oak, maple and walnut, grow in the warmer parts of the cool belts. Forests of cone-bearing trees, called evergreens, thrive in the

colder parts of these belts, both on plains and highlands. Trees of this kind

abound also on cool mountain sides in the warm and the hot belts.

Orchard-fruits, hay and vegetables thrive in many parts of these belts.

5. Plants of the Northern Cold Belt.

Some kinds of pine, spruce, birch, willow and other hardy trees grow in the warmer parts of the northern cold belt. Northward the trees become fewer and smaller, ending with dwarf birches and willows, only a few inches in height, on the dreary plains near the Arctic shore. There in the cold, marshy *tundras*, are also found mosses, lichens and stunted shrubs.

Very little is known about the islands in the icy sea around the South Pole.

The cold belts have very short summers.



ANIMALS.

1. Animals and their Homes.

Every kind of creature grows to suit its native haunts. By its teeth, feet, and other parts of its body, every animal is fitted to seize and devour its proper food.

Ducks take their food largely from ponds and streams. These fowl have webbed feet, and can swim easily and swiftly. The oily bodies of ducks grow very wide, and are thus suited to float. Along the inner edges of a duck's bill are many bristles that form a kind of strainer. When the duck swims with her open bill in the water, insects and small plants are caught in this strainer.

Every kind of creature has a covering that suits its native home.

Whales that live in polar seas have thick layers of fat, or *blubber*, to keep the icy water from chilling their muscles.

Animals make their homes in or near the places that supply their food.

Moths of many kinds lay eggs on the leaves which will form the food of the larvæ, when the eggs hatch. Spiders weave webs in places where flies and other insects flit about.

Among wild animals there is always a struggle for food and for life.

Tigers pounce upon deer and cattle; many birds feed on worms and insects; owls destroy field mice; polar bears catch seals and fish. Each creature may be the prey of some other.

Every animal has some means of defense or escape.

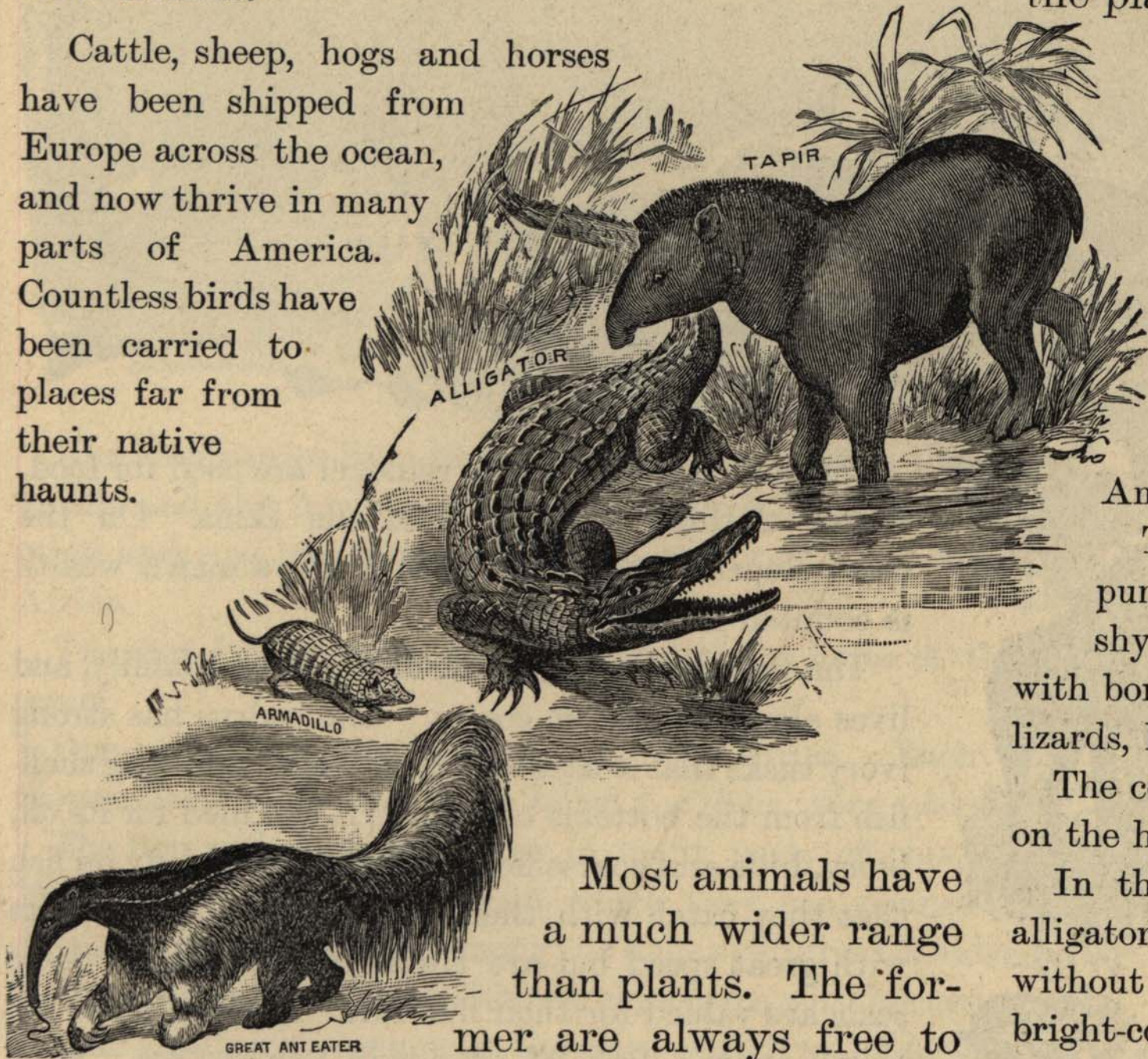
The chamois leaps from crag to crag; the rattlesnake strikes with poison fangs; the deer runs swiftly; the frog dives into water; the ostrich kicks and runs.

Nearly all animals have power to move about and seek new homes. There are places that animals cannot cross. They may be swift and

strong, but they cannot live in regions that do not supply their food.

Many animals have been taken by man to new homes.

Cattle, sheep, hogs and horses have been shipped from Europe across the ocean, and now thrive in many parts of America. Countless birds have been carried to places far from their native haunts.



Most animals have a much wider range than plants. The former are always free to

move from place to place as the seasons change or as periods of drouth come on. The chief barriers to their travel are oceans, deserts and highlands. These features divide the earth into great *realms*, each having some groups of animals that differ from those of the other realms. Many kinds of animals in each realm are also found in other realms, for some can cross places that are barriers to others.

2. South American Realm.

This realm includes South America, Central America, and the West Indies. It reaches from the plateau of Mexico to Cape Horn.

Among the animals of the Andes highland are the llama and alpaca.

Two other kinds of animals in South America resemble the llama. One of these, the vicuña, has fine wool and is kept in flocks. The other, called the guanaco, is hunted by Indians on the plains southward from the pampas.

The large running bird known as the *rhea*, or American ostrich, is found in the same region.

Two large cat-like animals, the jaguar and the puma or panther, are also found here. So are the shy tapirs, the sharp-clawed ant-eaters, armadillos with bony armor, shaggy sloths, harmless iguanas or lizards, huge boas and fierce peccaries.

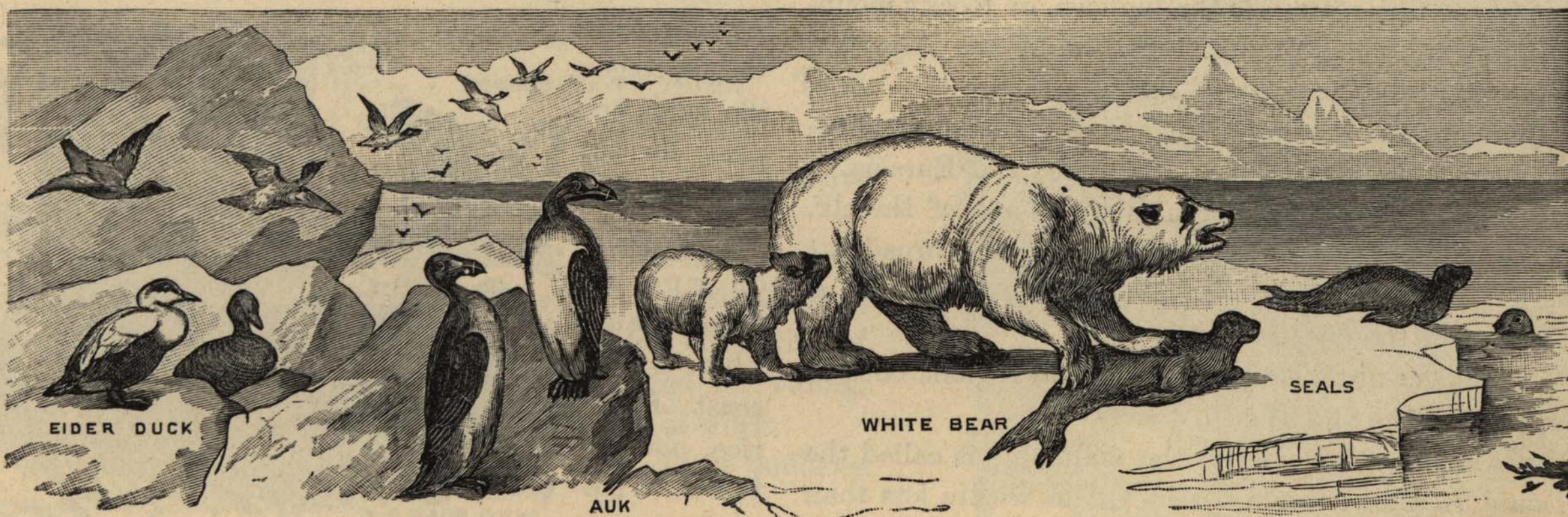
The condor, largest of flying birds, may often be seen on the high peaks of the Andes.

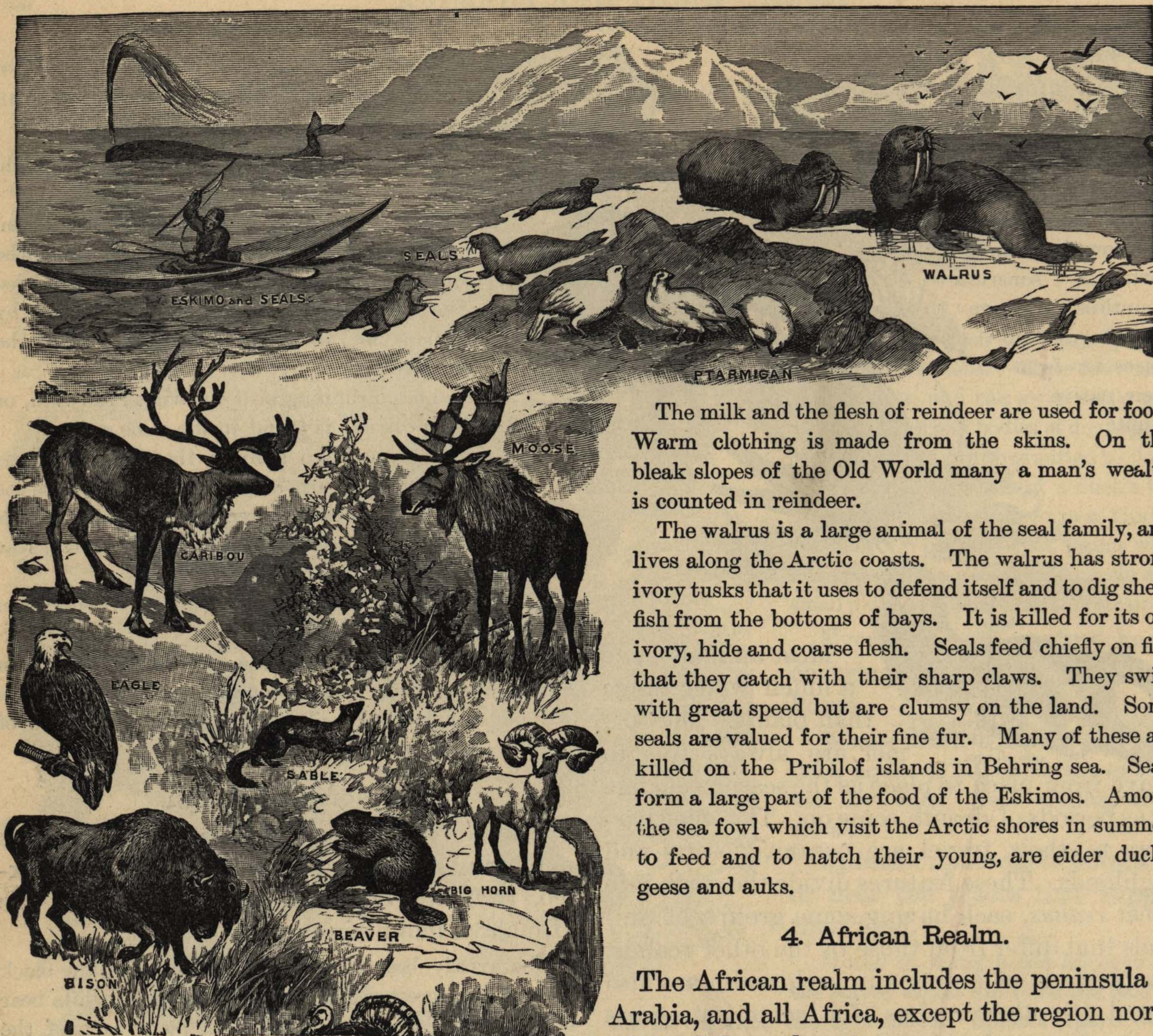
In the forest and along the streams may be seen alligators, monkeys, parrots, toucans and other creatures without number. Brazil is the home of swarms of bright-colored insects.

3. Northern Realm.

The Northern realm embraces all the lands extending northward from the plateau of Mexico, from the desert of Sahara and from the Himalaya mountains.

The grizzly bear of the Rocky mountains, the black bear of the forest regions, and the polar or white bear of the Arctic regions are found in many parts of the Northern realm.





Among the animals which make their home in the highlands of this realm are the bighorn, or Rocky mountain sheep, the chamois and the ibex of the Alps, the Kashmir goat and the yak of Tibet.

Millions of fur-bearing animals live in the great pine-forest belt of the north, both in America and Eurasia.

The forest belt of the north is the home of the elk. This animal is noted for its speed and for its broad flat antlers. The American elk is called the *moose*. It is the largest of the deer family.

The reindeer also belongs in the cold regions both of America and the Old World.

The American reindeer on the mainland is called the *caribou*. Reindeer range northward to within less than a thousand miles of the pole.

The milk and the flesh of reindeer are used for food. Warm clothing is made from the skins. On the bleak slopes of the Old World many a man's wealth is counted in reindeer.

The walrus is a large animal of the seal family, and lives along the Arctic coasts. The walrus has strong ivory tusks that it uses to defend itself and to dig shell-fish from the bottoms of bays. It is killed for its oil, ivory, hide and coarse flesh. Seals feed chiefly on fish that they catch with their sharp claws. They swim with great speed but are clumsy on the land. Some seals are valued for their fine fur. Many of these are killed on the Pribilof islands in Behring sea. Seals form a large part of the food of the Eskimos. Among the sea fowl which visit the Arctic shores in summer, to feed and to hatch their young, are eider ducks, geese and auks.

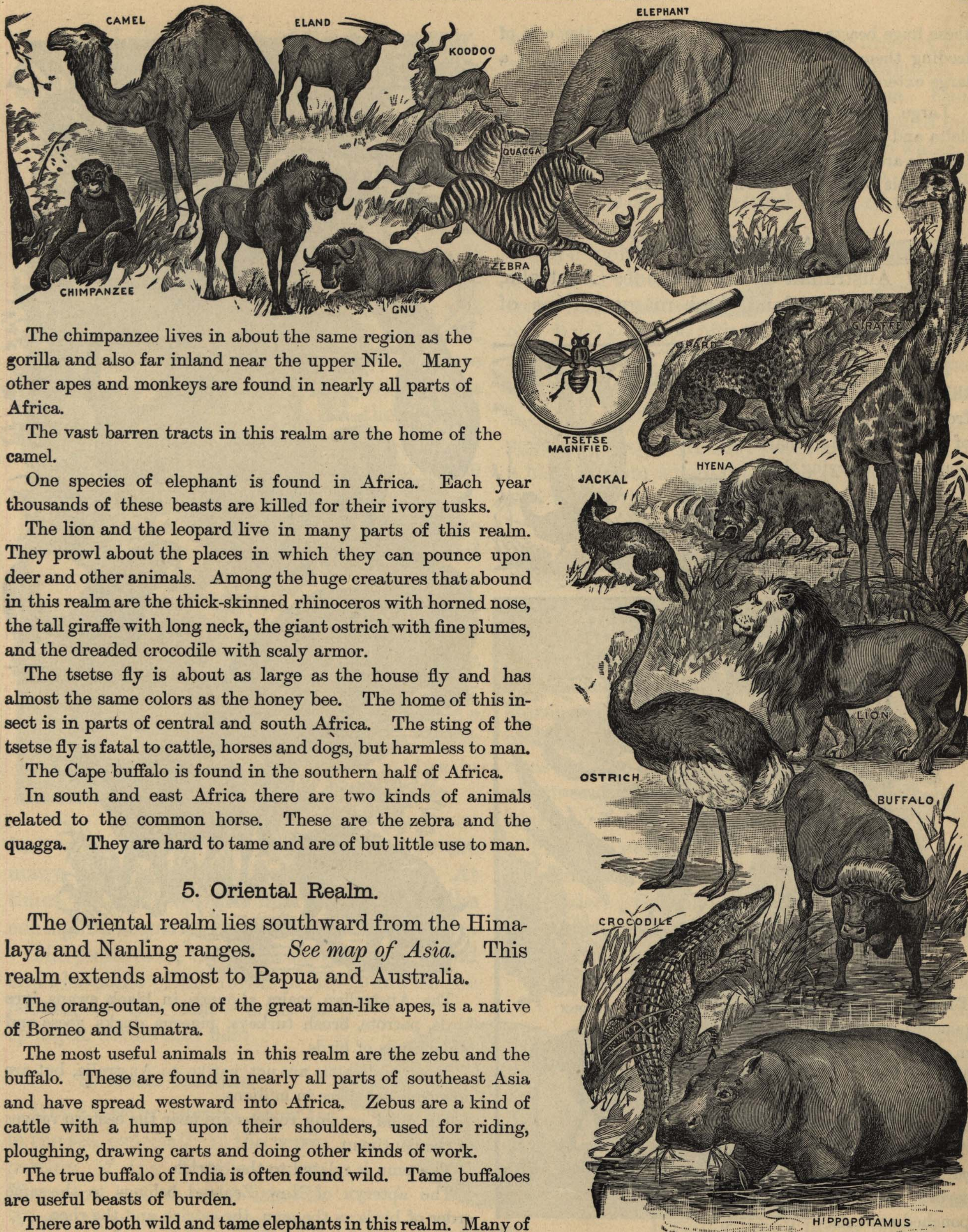
4. African Realm.

The African realm includes the peninsula of Arabia, and all Africa, except the region north of the Sahara desert.

This realm is the home of many man-like apes. Among these the fierce gorilla holds first place for size and strength.

This species of ape is found near the west coast of Africa, not far from the equator.





The chimpanzee lives in about the same region as the gorilla and also far inland near the upper Nile. Many other apes and monkeys are found in nearly all parts of Africa.

The vast barren tracts in this realm are the home of the camel.

One species of elephant is found in Africa. Each year thousands of these beasts are killed for their ivory tusks.

The lion and the leopard live in many parts of this realm. They prowl about the places in which they can pounce upon deer and other animals. Among the huge creatures that abound in this realm are the thick-skinned rhinoceros with horned nose, the tall giraffe with long neck, the giant ostrich with fine plumes, and the dreaded crocodile with scaly armor.

The tsetse fly is about as large as the house fly and has almost the same colors as the honey bee. The home of this insect is in parts of central and south Africa. The sting of the tsetse fly is fatal to cattle, horses and dogs, but harmless to man.

The Cape buffalo is found in the southern half of Africa.

In south and east Africa there are two kinds of animals related to the common horse. These are the zebra and the quagga. They are hard to tame and are of but little use to man.

5. Oriental Realm.

The Oriental realm lies southward from the Himalaya and Nanling ranges. *See map of Asia.* This realm extends almost to Papua and Australia.

The orang-utan, one of the great man-like apes, is a native of Borneo and Sumatra.

The most useful animals in this realm are the zebu and the buffalo. These are found in nearly all parts of southeast Asia and have spread westward into Africa. Zebras are a kind of cattle with a hump upon their shoulders, used for riding, ploughing, drawing carts and doing other kinds of work.

The true buffalo of India is often found wild. Tame buffaloes are useful beasts of burden.

There are both wild and tame elephants in this realm. Many of

these huge beasts are trained to work, but the cost of feeding them is very great, and their places are to a large extent being taken by horses.

Large crocodiles, called *gavials*, infest the Ganges delta and the lower parts of many streams in this realm. Gavials are of service to man, for they devour the bodies of animals which float down the streams.

6. Australian Realm.

The Australian realm includes Australia, Papua, New Zealand, and many groups of small islands in the Pacific ocean.

Most of the animals in this realm differ widely from those in other parts of the world. Many have pouches for carrying their helpless young.



These pouches are made by folds in the skin on the under side of the body.

The name *kan-garoo* is given to several species of pouched animals.



The Australian realm abounds in black swans, lyre birds, parrots, brush turkeys, pigeons, ducks, geese and other kinds of birds.

Sheep and cattle are not native to Australia, but are now counted there in millions.

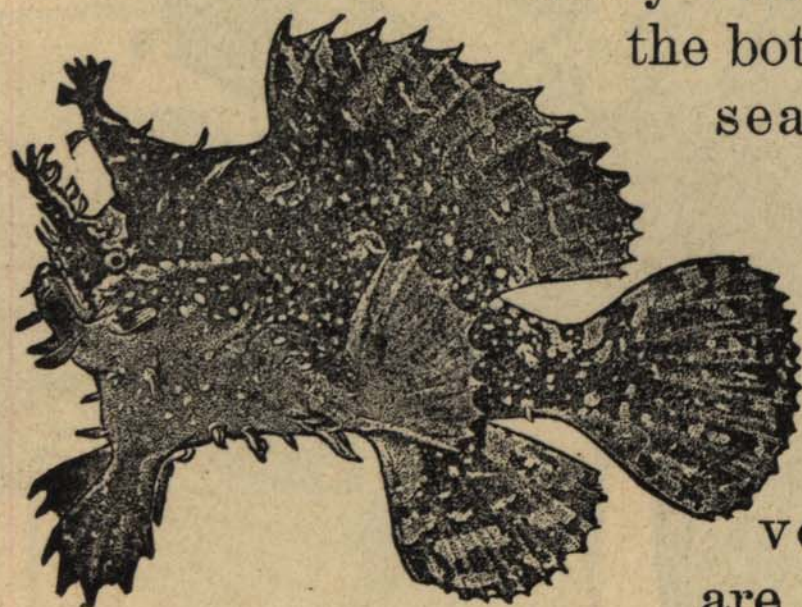
The chief grazing regions are near the eastern ranges of the continent.

The emu is related to the ostrich.

The apteryx of New Zealand belongs to the same order of birds as the emu, the ostrich and the rhea.

7. The Bottom of the Sea.

In some places there are very long and wide banks under the sea. The tops of many ranges and ridges also rise above the water and form islands.



A Spiny Fish.

Many volcanoes rest upon the bottom of the deep sea. Their peaks form hundreds of lonely islands, far out in the ocean. Most of these volcanic islands are in the Pacific ocean.

By far the greater part of the bottom of the sea is a vast smooth plain.

Sunlight does not go very far down in the sea. If we were to sink in this great body of water, we should find the light growing fainter as we went deeper. At less than one fourth of



Coral Island.

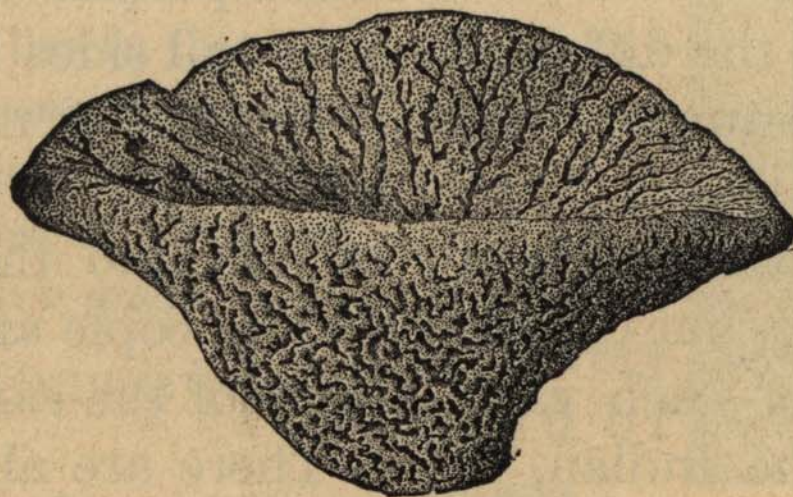
a mile below the surface, the ocean is always in darkness. In some places the water is five miles in depth.

Near the surface of the sea, and on the bottom, there are many kinds of fish and other creatures. At times the shallow water near the shores of the continents seems to be alive with fishes.

The pictures on this page show a coral island and also some of the forms of life found on the bottom of the sea,—such as sponges, corals and fish.

8. Coral Islands.

Many pretty islands grow in the sea, especially in the warm portion of the Pacific ocean. They are called coral islands. When they are growing they



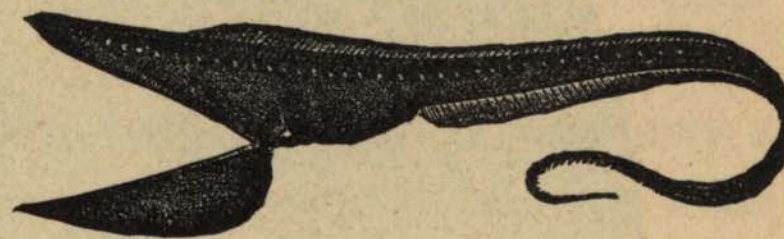
Sponge.

look like branches of trees. There are tiny soft spots on the sides and ends of the branches.

This is one of the wonders of the sea. Each soft spot is a living body. It has a mouth and a stomach, and takes its food from the water.

This tiny creature is called a *polyp*, and the hard part is *coral*. The coral is part of the body of the polyp.

Some polyps grow like trees, and send out buds that



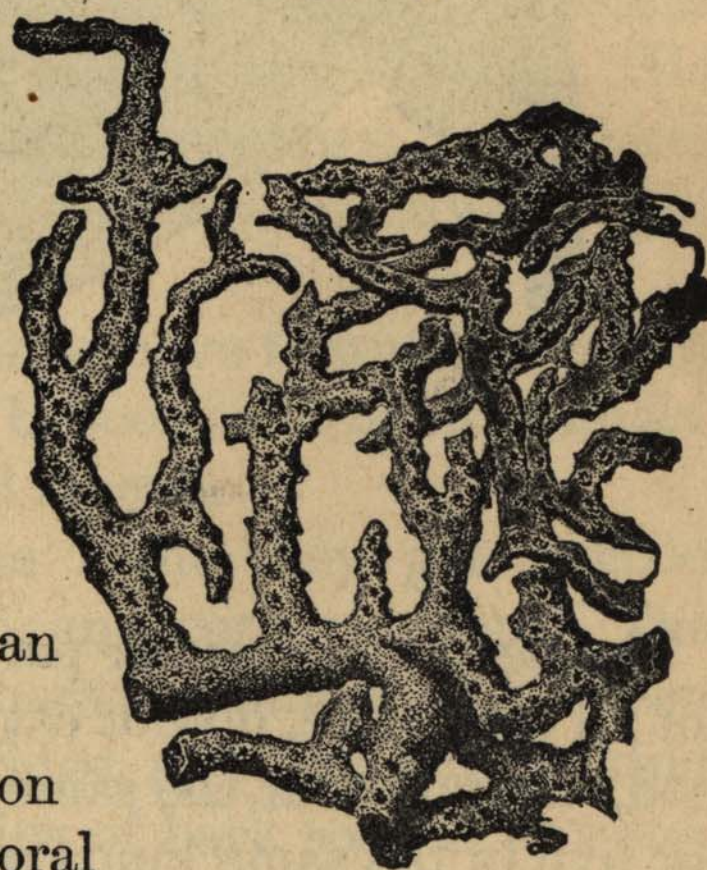
Deep Sea Fish.

form branches. The polyps on the branches bud again, and thus a dense coral forest grows.

Polyps lay tiny eggs in the water, and the eggs float about. If they reach a rocky bank or a hard bottom where the water is shallow, clear and warm, they start another forest of coral.

When the coral has grown nearly to the sur-

face of the sea, waves break off many branches and wash them on to the top of the coral mass. Each storm sends up more, till the bank rises above the water and forms an island.



Branching Coral.

The waves soon grind some of the coral to powder. Sea-plants drift to the new shore and mix with the coral dust. Soil is thus formed on the island.

Fine seeds are carried many miles by winds in storms. Other seeds drift with the sea from shore to shore. In some such ways seeds reach the new island, and grow to trees or smaller plants. In time the coral island is ready for man to come and make it his home.

There are many kinds of coral, forming many pretty shapes.



RACES OF MEN.

The people in various parts of the earth do not all look alike, do not eat the same kinds of food, do not wear the same styles of clothing, nor live in the same kinds of houses.

The people of the earth are divided into five groups, or *races*. The people of one race differ from those of the other races in color, in size, in the shape of their skulls, in kinds of hair, in language, and in other respects.

It will be very interesting to see the different homes, and the varied kinds of costumes worn by people in different parts of the world.

In some places we shall find that people of two or more races live side by side, but certain lands are known as the home of each race. Thus, America is the home of the Indian, or red-brown race. Most of the brown people are

found on islands southeast of Asia. The north and east slopes from the Asian Highland are the home of the yellow race.

The home of each race is bounded on nearly all sides by oceans, deserts or lofty highlands. The desert of Sahara lies between lands of the black and the white races. The Himalaya mountains separate homes of yellow and of white people. The land of the Indian is bounded on all sides by the sea.

No race is now limited to its original home, for the people of each race have spread more or less into the lands of other races. Thus, white people are now found in nearly all settled parts of the earth.

There are about 1,500,000,000 people in the world.



Carrying Ivory to the Coast.

1. The Negro or Black Race.

The natives of middle and southern Africa vary in color from black to brown. Most of them have broad flat noses; thick, protruding lips,

and short, black, frizzly hair.

The true negroes are found in nearly all parts of Sudan, but the people in the tribes southward from Sudan to the Cape of Good Hope also belong to the Negro race.

Many of the people of Brazil, the West Indies, and the southern plains of the United States, are freed descendants of African slaves.

The black natives of Australia are classed with the negro race. Their color is dusky brown, and their hair is curly.

The number of Australians is small, compared with the number of white people who now live in that continent. There are only about thirty thousand in all the tribes. These are thinly scattered around the continent, chiefly within about two hundred miles of the coast. The Australians are savages of a very low grade.

The savages of Papua or New Guinea belong to the black race.

Millions of black people have been taken

from their homes in Africa and sold as slaves, but the slave trade has now been almost stopped. The climate of their native land fitted the Negroes to work in the low and hot regions of the earth.

The number of people in the black race is about 150,000,000,—one-tenth of the people on the earth.

The picture on this page shows a company of people in Africa near the great river Kongo, south of the desert of Sahara. Ivory is one of the chief products of this country.

Look carefully at the tall house. This is the kind of a house the boys and girls of the Kongo country live in. When a man builds a house, he first breaks off many strong reeds and sets them in the ground in a circle. Then he ties them together with long grasses, and fastens bunches of grass all over them for a roof. He leaves a doorway, but no windows. He makes no chimney because the fires are always built out of doors.

Little boys in Kongo have to watch the corn fields to keep away baboons and other animals, with little bows and arrows.

When they come home they get a good supper of eggs, fish, and corn porridge. The girls help their mothers to pound corn between stones for the porridge, and assist in making cloth from long strips of bark soaked in water and then pounded till they are very soft.

Everybody goes to bed at dark, for there are no lamps.

Negro children are very fond of music.



Buffalo of Egypt.



Kaffir Girl and Baby.



Kaffir Huts.

Many tribes called Kaffirs live in Southern Africa. They all belong to the black race, although their color varies from red-brown to black. They make garden tools and weapons of copper and iron. They have herds of cattle and raise large crops of corn. Milk and corn are their chief articles of food.

The Hottentots too live in Southern Africa. They are usually very small men. They move about from place to place in search of grass for their cattle and sheep. This is the reason they have huts like the one in the picture. The Hottentot women do all the hard work about home. The people use sheepskins wrapped about the body for clothes.

2. The American or Red Race.

Formerly, the Indians lived in every part of America. Now the white man has taken their hunting grounds and there are not many Indians left. In North America they live chiefly

in Mexico, Central America, the western part of the United States, and the north western portion of Canada. Most of them live in tents, although in Ontario many of the Six Nation Indians have fine farms and live in good houses.

In Canada nearly all the Indians are upon *reservations*. These are large tracts of land set apart as homes for the tribes.

Most of the Indians have high cheek-bones and straight, black hair. Their skin is reddish-brown or copper color.

Some tribes of Indians still live in tents. Others build *pueblos*—houses or villages made of sun-dried bricks or of stone.

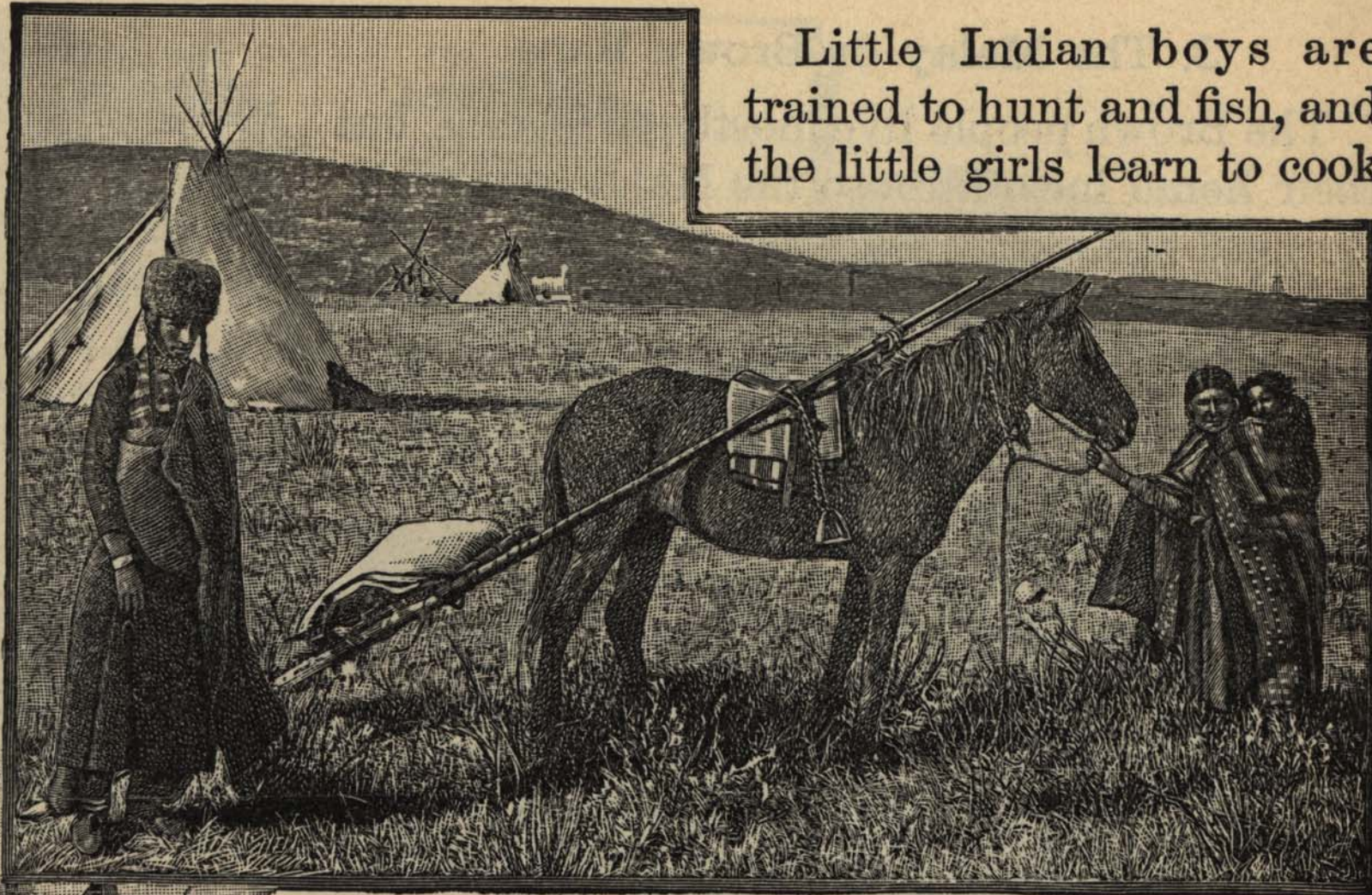
The native weapons are the bow and arrow and the tomahawk, or hatchet. The Indians shoot the arrow and throw the tomahawk with great skill. Many are now skilful with rifles.



Young Indian Chief.

The Indians had no horses before the Europeans came to America, but most of the savages are now excellent riders.

In all the countries of South America the races are greatly mixed. Most of the white people live near the coasts, but there, as well as farther inland, are found several million Indians. Those of the interior are



Indians and their Camps.

and work in the garden. They take down the tents and put them up again when their camps are moved.

Indians live in tribes, and obey the chief or head of their tribe. They are fond of dancing and other amusements. Some of their dances are religious ceremonies. They used to have strange, wild dances before they went to war. You may see a picture of their sun dance on page 67.

The game of lacrosse was first played by the Indians. They played it with a stick with a bag at the end of it.

The term Indian is a mistake, as the "Red Men" have no connection with India or the Hindus.

The American or red race includes only about one-twelfth as many people as the black race. Most of the Indians live in the torrid zone. They are gradually dying off.



Fiji Islanders.

savages of very low grade.

When the first white settlers came to America, the Indians of Peru and Mexico had

temples and other buildings of stone. They made cloth, and worked in copper and gold, but the use of iron was not known to them. They built good roads and bridges. These people had made more progress than any others in the red race.

Indian babies have strange cradles. They are made of boards with cloth wrapped around them. The babies are tied in them with the boards at their backs, and then the cradles are tied to branches of trees, or placed against walls, or leaned against trees. Indian mothers carry their babies in their cradles strapped on their backs.



3. The Malay or Brown Race.

The Brown people live mostly on islands, but their home includes also the Malay peninsula. Borneo, Sumatra, Madagascar and Java are the most important Islands peopled by the brown race, but the region includes countless islands that extend for thousands of miles out into the Pacific.

Java is a land of flowers and fruit.

It is so beautiful that it is called the "Pearl of the East." The house in the pic-



A Malay Girl.



A Malay Home.

ture is made of bamboo.

The little girl helps her mother in the house. She makes pillows with soft white down that grows on a tree near by, and weaves dry grass into mats that are used as beds.

Her brother pounds the rice for breakfast to take off the yellow hulls, and gathers a few cocoanuts and ripe bananas. The fruit is eaten raw, but the rice is cooked. Their only table is a mat, and all sit on the ground while eating.



A Java Girl.

As Java is very near the equator, it is so hot by ten o'clock that all work in the fields has to be stopped. During the middle of the day the people sit in the shade and weave baskets. By four o'clock, the air is cooler and the father goes back to the rice field.

The people of the brown race have coarse black hair, flat faces, and short skulls. Many of them have strong and well-built bodies. They have some marks of the three chief races: the skull and eyes of the Caucasian, the long coarse black hair of the Mongolian, and the flattened features of the Negro.

The fruit-eating bats nibble the corn and tender shoots of the palms. The boys set snares to catch them.

Many people of the Malay race are yet savages. Others are traders or sailors. Many thousand people of this race inhabit the north-



A Malay Boy.

ern part of New Zealand. These are known as *Maoris*. They are brave and war-like, and have fought hard to prevent the white man from seizing their island home, but they have lost the largest and best parts of their islands.

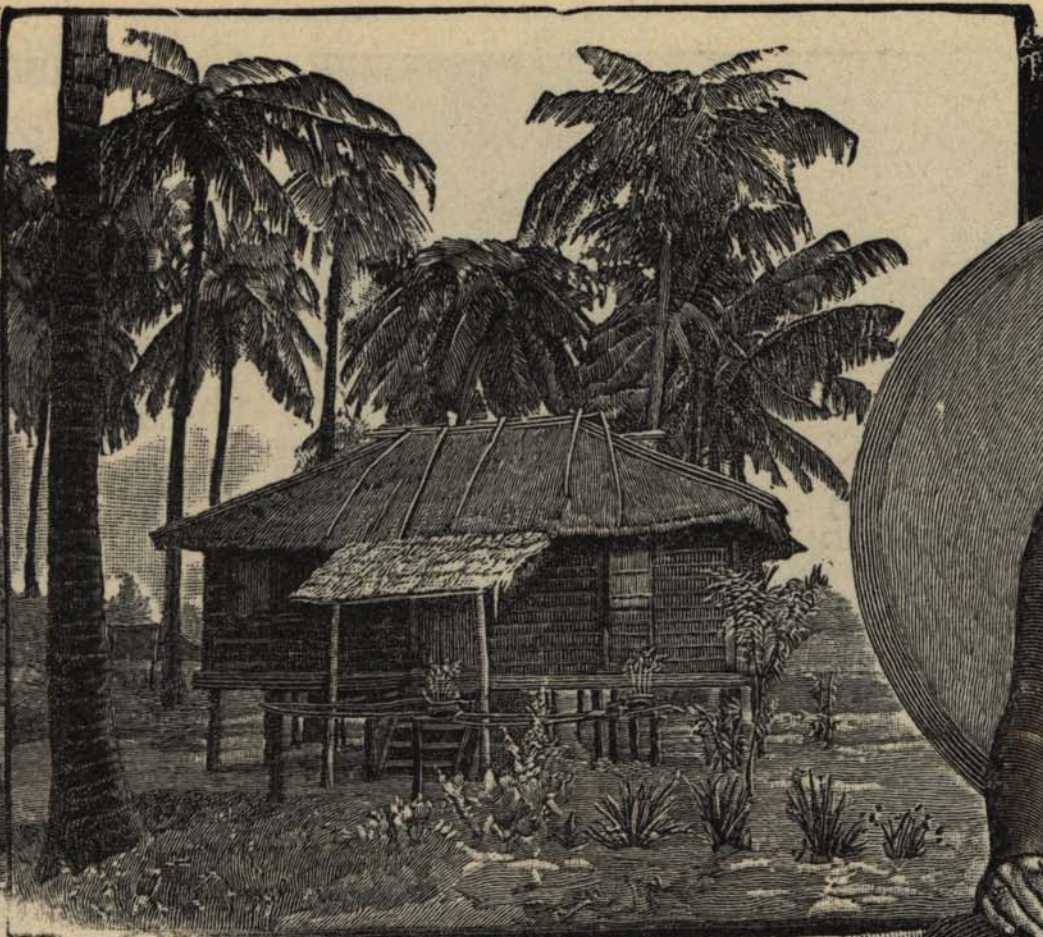
At the present time the white man rules over most of the brown race.

The brown people raise a very large portion of the spices used in the whole world.

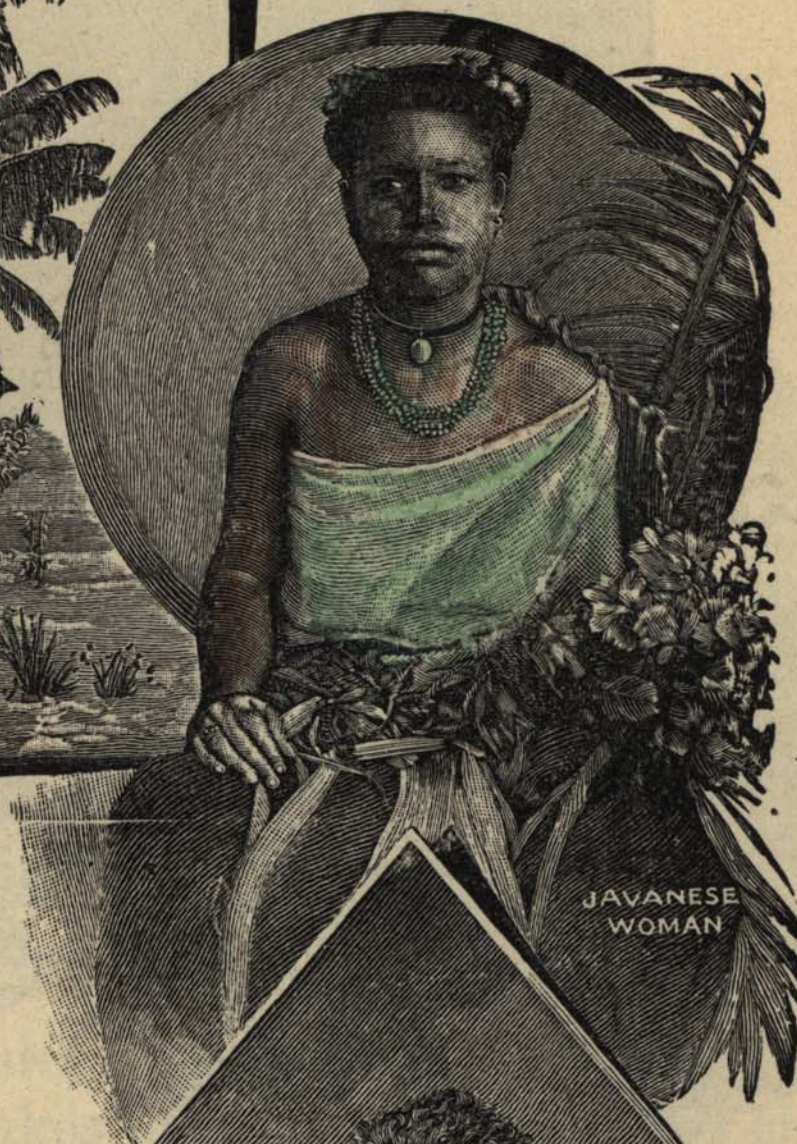
The brown or Malay race includes only about one-fourth as many people as the black race.



Fiji Hut.



Malay Hut.

JAVANESE
WOMAN

Maori Chief, New Zealand.

4. The Mongolian or Yellow Race.

The people of the yellow and the brown races resemble one another. Most of them have coarse black hair, flat faces, and short skulls; small, oblique, and narrow eyes; long, thick and lank hair, and little or no beard.

The races differ slightly in color, in the slant of their eyes and in some other respects. The brown race is perhaps a branch of the yellow race. The American Indians also resemble somewhat the people of these two groups.

The Yellow race is found in nearly all parts of Asia, on the north and east of the great central highland. The home of this race reaches from the Himalaya mountains to the Arctic coast, and also includes every river basin sloping to the Pacific coast of Asia.

The Japanese and the Chinese are famous for the weaving of silk and the making of porcelain. Centuries ago, the Chinese invented printing

and gun-

powder, but for many years this nation has made little progress. The Japanese have made more progress than any other people of the yellow race. They have good schools, and have been wise enough to adopt many of the customs of the leading white nations.

Many tribes of Yellow people are found on the long Arctic slope of Eurasia.

The Lapps and Finns of Northwest Europe and the Eskimos of America belong to the yellow race.

The yellow race includes more than one-third of the people on the earth. About one-fourth of the human race is found in China.



A Japanese Village.



Scenes in Japan.

Japan and its People.

The girls and boys of Japan have round faces, bright black eyes, and pearly teeth. They often have ruddy cheeks, though their skin is brownish yellow. The boys dress nearly like the girls, but the boys have their hair shaved very close, while the girls' hair is twisted into many odd shapes.

They wear very large sleeves which serve as pockets. Their shoes are simply wooden soles tied on with strings. They are not worn in

the house. The girls and boys in Japan have a good time playing. Their fathers and mothers like to see their children playing. Girls often go out to play with their baby brothers and sisters tied on their backs, as you see them in the picture.

The Japanese houses are made of bamboo, with paper windows and doors. Many things are made of paper in Japan: fans, lanterns, hats, cloaks, caps, napkins and

many other things.

The Japanese sit on mats of wadded cloth, or straw. They do not use chairs. They sleep on a padded quilt, and rest their heads on a wooden pillow.

The Japanese workmen make many very artistic things, and weave very beautiful cloth.

There are ponies in Japan, but most people prefer to be drawn by men, in the way you may see in the picture.

The Chinese.

The Chinese people look like the Japanese, but their eyes are set aslant. They belong to a very ancient race. They do



Japanese Rain-coats.



Woman of Burma.



Chinese.

not like to let strangers into their country. They form about one-fourth of all the people in the world. They

grow a great deal of tea, and are noted for their fine silks. They live chiefly on rice. You may see how they dress, and what kind of houses they live in, by examining the pictures.

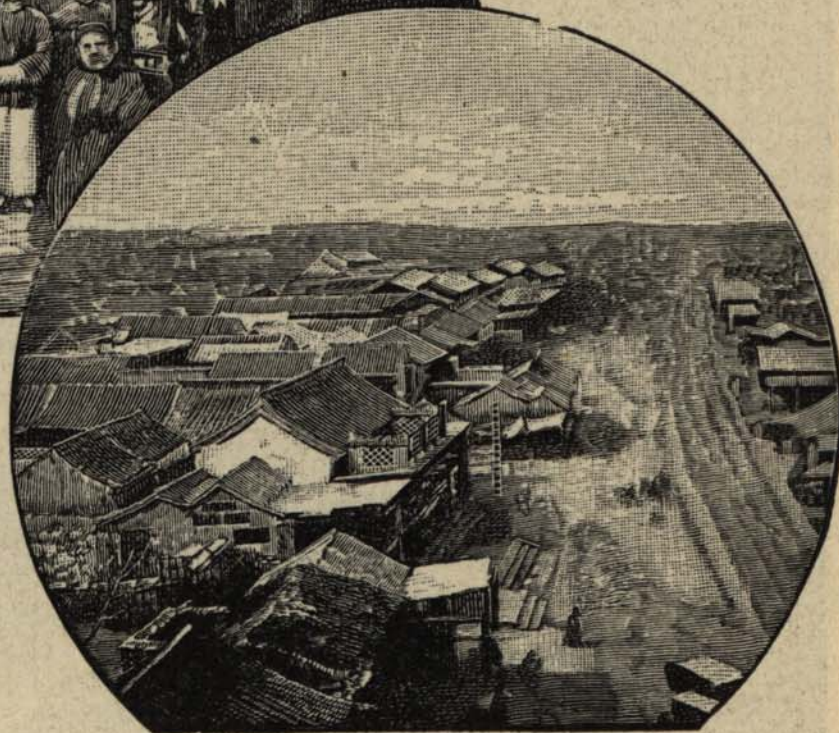
The Eskimos.

The Eskimos live along the north coast of North America and the islands near by. They live also on the south-west coast of Greenland.

Eskimo babies sleep in bags of feathers and sometimes in large hoods in the skin coats worn by their mothers. When they are old enough they wear pretty suits of sealskin. The Eskimo homes are huts made of stone or ice and they are partly under ground. The doors are



Street Scene in China.



A Chinese Village.

Inside is a large lamp made from a hollow stone. The oil is got from the whales, and the wick is made of moss. The lamp makes the air of the hut smell close,



Eskimos.

so small that the people have to creep in on their hands and knees. and fills the hut with smoke, but it keeps the children warm, and you may see how the cooking is done over the lamp, if you look at the picture on the next page.



Inside an Eskimo Hut.

An Eskimo boy gets a great many splendid rides on his sled, drawn by his dogs. They run very fast over ice and snow.

The Eskimos hunt seals for food and cloth-

ing, and whales for their blubber, from which oil is made to burn. They hunt in a narrow canoe called a kayak. The kayak is covered with seal skins so that water cannot get into it.

The Eskimos eat fish, seals, bears, and parts of the whale. They have no bread because they can grow no grain.

A Lapland Home.

Here is a Lapland home. It has to be very warm because the weather in Lapland is very cold. The Lapps live in Lapland in the North of Europe. They belong to the Yellow race.

Inside the hut you would find strips of meat hanging from the walls. This meat is the flesh of the reindeer. The reindeer gives the Lapps skins for clothing, meat, milk and cheese for eating, and does the work that horses do for us. They can run one hundred miles in a day. The people sleep between deer-skins, so that the reindeer is of great service to them. The babies sleep in skin hammocks.



A Lapland Home.

5. The Caucasian or White Race.

The Caucasian or White Race is distinguished by a white or fair skin, oval face, straight eyebrows, prominent, regular features and straight or curly hair.

The home of the White race in the Old World lies between the lands of the black and the yellow races.

the north of the Alpine system, and most of the white people in Canada, the United States, Southern Africa and Australia.

The people in the peninsula of Arabia and in the countries on the north of the Sahara desert, as well as in parts of the desert itself, are very dark, but most of them belong to the White race.

The White race outnumbers even the Yellow race. These two great races together include all but about one seventh of the people in the world. There are nearly 700,000,000 people in the Caucasian race.

It will be interesting to learn about the white children of some other countries; how they live, how they dress, how they work, and what their countries are like.



Scenes in Holland.

Children of Holland.

It is thought by many persons that ages ago there lived in central Asia a race of people now called Aryans.

Many of the Aryans, with droves of cattle, went into India.

The descendants of this branch of the Aryans are now called Hindus.

Many tribes of Aryans fought their way across the plains of *Low Europe*. These have grown into the leading nations of the world. They include nearly all the people living on

Holland is a low country. It is crossed by a network of canals and ditches. Its wide meadows look as level as a floor. No fences are needed, for canals separate the fields.

**A Glacier.**

Boats with white sails seem to skim over the meadows, but of course they are in the canals. The girls are often more skilful than the boys in handling the boats. In winter the girls and boys skate on the canals, and drive loads to market before them on the ice.

Some of the children in Holland are born in boats, and spend their lives floating about on canals.

Banks or dykes are built to keep out the sea from the low land, and many windmills are used to pump the water from the fields into the canals.

The people burn dry sods, or peat for fuel.

In many parts of Holland the horses have to wear broad boards under their feet to keep them from sinking in the soft ground.

Children of Switzerland.

The children of Switzerland live in a land entirely different from Holland. There are high mountains which are always covered with ice and snow. Sometimes great masses of ice and

snow crack and break away from the sides of the mountains and slide down into the valleys, destroying houses and carrying away trees and rocks. These crashing, rushing masses are called snow-slides or avalanches.



In the spring time the men and boys take their cattle and sheep higher up the mountain sides for pasture. They are to be away all summer, so the day of their departure is a day of great excitement. As the snow melts they climb higher till in the Autumn

**A Swiss Cottage.**

time when the snow storms threaten they drive their flocks home again. The day of their return is a day of rejoicing. Bells are rung, flags fly, and all the people who remained at home go out to meet those who have been away.

The girls helped their mothers while their fathers and brothers were up the mountains.

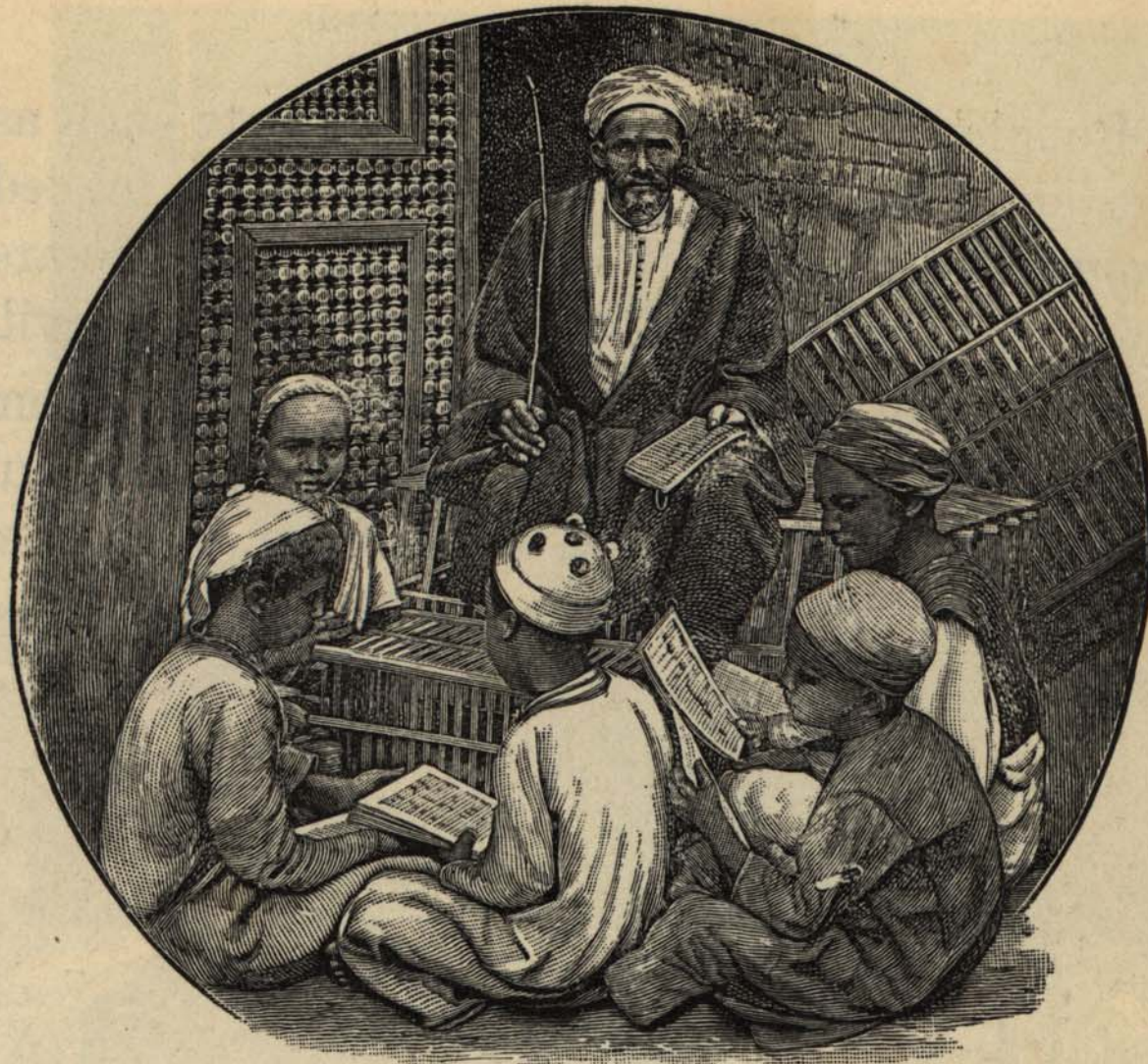
They mowed the grass, plaited straw hats, milked the cows and

**Remains of a Snowslide.**

goats that were not sent to the mountains, and made butter and cheese for market.

The Arabs.

The Arabs may be divided into the settled population of the towns and villages and the wandering Bedouins of the desert. The former live in houses made of stone or wood, or in huts of sun-dried bricks; the latter live in tents. The people are kind, polite and hospitable. "The guest is sacred in his camping-ground, and the foe himself is welcome once he has touched the tent-rope." They do not use chairs and tables like ours but take their meals seated on the floor, with the food in a dish on the floor or on a low table in the centre of their circle. The little boys go to school and sit around



Arab School.

The camel is the most useful animal in Arabia. They travel rapidly, carry large burdens, and can go for days over the deserts without drinking. The camel is sometimes called "The Ship of the Desert." Its hair is soft and fine. It is used in making cloth. The tents of the Arab tribes that live in the desert are made of this kind of cloth.

The Arabs are very fond of their horses. They have the most beautiful horses in the world. An Arab loves his horse so much that he does not use a bit in its mouth, but guides it by pressing his knees against its sides.



Inside of an Arab House.

their schoolmaster, within reach of his rod. They all study the Koran, which is their Bible.

In Arabia the date takes the place of wheat as used in our own land, of rice in Japan and of fruit in Java. It grows on a beautiful palm tree, called the date palm. These date trees wave in the fertile valleys as far as the eye can reach. The Arabs also eat butter and cheese made of goat's milk; drink the milk of the camel, and eat its boiled flesh.

Coffee is the chief drink of the Arabs. The coffee berries grow on the hilly lands near the strait that forms the outlet of the Red sea.



Arab Family.

6. Religions.

People who worship idols, or objects such as the sun, fire, animals or images, are called *pagans*. As a rule, they believe that there are spirits having magical power to do good or evil.

Nearly all savages are pagans. Most of them belong to the Black and the Red races, but there are many savages in each of the other

Buddha, a great sage and native philosopher of the fifth century B.C., taught that caste had nothing to do with religion. His followers are called *Buddhists*. The Buddhist religion in India soon passed away, but it spread over central and eastern Asia.

Most of the people of the yellow race, or about one-third of the



mosque of
ST. SOPHIA

racess. About one-seventh of the people on the earth are pagans.

India is the seat of a very old religion that divides its followers into classes called *castes*. The four principal castes are the priests, the soldiers and rulers, the merchants, the servants. Below these are the outcasts.

Brahma is one of the chief gods in this religion. The priests are called *Brahmans*, and all the believers are *Brahmanists*.

About one-half of the people in India, or one-tenth of mankind, are *Brahmanists*.



human race, are Buddhists.

The Semitic branch of the white race has given to the world the three religions whose followers worship one God.

The Christians believe in one God and the *Bible*; the Jewish people be-

lieve in one God but not in the *New Testament*; the Mohammedans believe in one God, but their sacred book is the *Koran*.

Mohammed, the founder of the religion which bears his name, lived in Arabia about a thousand years before the first English colony settled in America.



7. Governments.

A number of savages living under one ruler, or *chief*, form a *tribe*. A chief generally has absolute power over the lives and property of his subjects, but as the tribes become more civilized the people secure more rights.

The *tribal* government is the common form of rule among pagans.

Among some nations the rulers have absolute power. They make the laws and enforce them, and also hold office for life by right of birth. A nation thus ruled is an *absolute monarchy*. The rulers, or *monarchs*, take such names as *czar*, *shah*, *sultan*, *ameer*. The Mohammedan and Buddhist nations, except Japan, are absolute monarchies.

A government in which the ruler holds office by right of birth, but is limited in power, is called a *limited monarchy*. Such a ruler is commonly called a *king*, *queen*, *emperor*, or *empress*.

A government in which the people elect their own ruler is a *republic*.

The Christian nations, except Russia, are either limited monarchies or republics. Russia and Turkey are absolute monarchies. France

and Switzerland are republics. The other nations of Europe are limited monarchies.

All the countries in America are republics, except the colonies of the nations of Europe.

All the nations of yellow people, except Japan, have absolute monarchies. Japan has a limited monarchy. All the white nations of Asia and



Studying the Koran.

Africa, which have their own rulers, are absolute monarchies.

Review of the Races.

What races are separated by the Pacific ocean? By the Atlantic ocean? By the Indian ocean? By the desert of Sahara? By the Himalaya mountains?

Where is the home of the brown race? Of the black race? Of the white race?

Tell what race or races are found in each of these river basins: Amazon, Kongo, Mississippi, Nile, Ganges, Lena, Niger, La Plata, Mackenzie, St. Lawrence, Volga, Yang-tse, Amur.

To which race or races do the people in each of these lands belong?—China, British Isles, Brazil, Arabia, Germany, United States, India, Greenland, Borneo, Russia, Japan, Congo State, Egypt, Peru, Mexico, Sudan, Java, Australia.

TOTAL POPULATION OF THE WORLD	1,500,000,000
Caucasian	690,000,000
Mongolian	600,000,000
Negro	150,000,000
Malay	35,000,000
American	12,000,000
Mixed Races	13,000,000
Christians	400,000,000
Buddhists	500,000,000
Mohammedans	200,000,000
Brahmanists	150,000,000
Jews	8,000,000
Pagans and others	242,000,000





Eddystone Light, England.

DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN COMMERCE.

No state nor country produces all the things which its people need, but each has a surplus of some products.

The buying and selling, or the exchange of goods, is called *trade*. Trade on a large scale may be called *commerce*. *Domestic commerce* is that carried on between various parts of one country. *Foreign commerce* is that carried on between one country and another.

Great Britain leads in foreign commerce. Germany ranks second; France third; the United States fourth; and Canada fifth.

The rivers which are of greatest use as routes of trade are those which are deep and slow, and which flow through the most productive

regions. No other river surpasses the St. Lawrence for trade purposes.

Lakes and inland seas that lead in the direction of trade centres are often of greater service than rivers.

The water way along the Great Lakes between Canada and the United States is of more importance than any other lake or river route in the world.

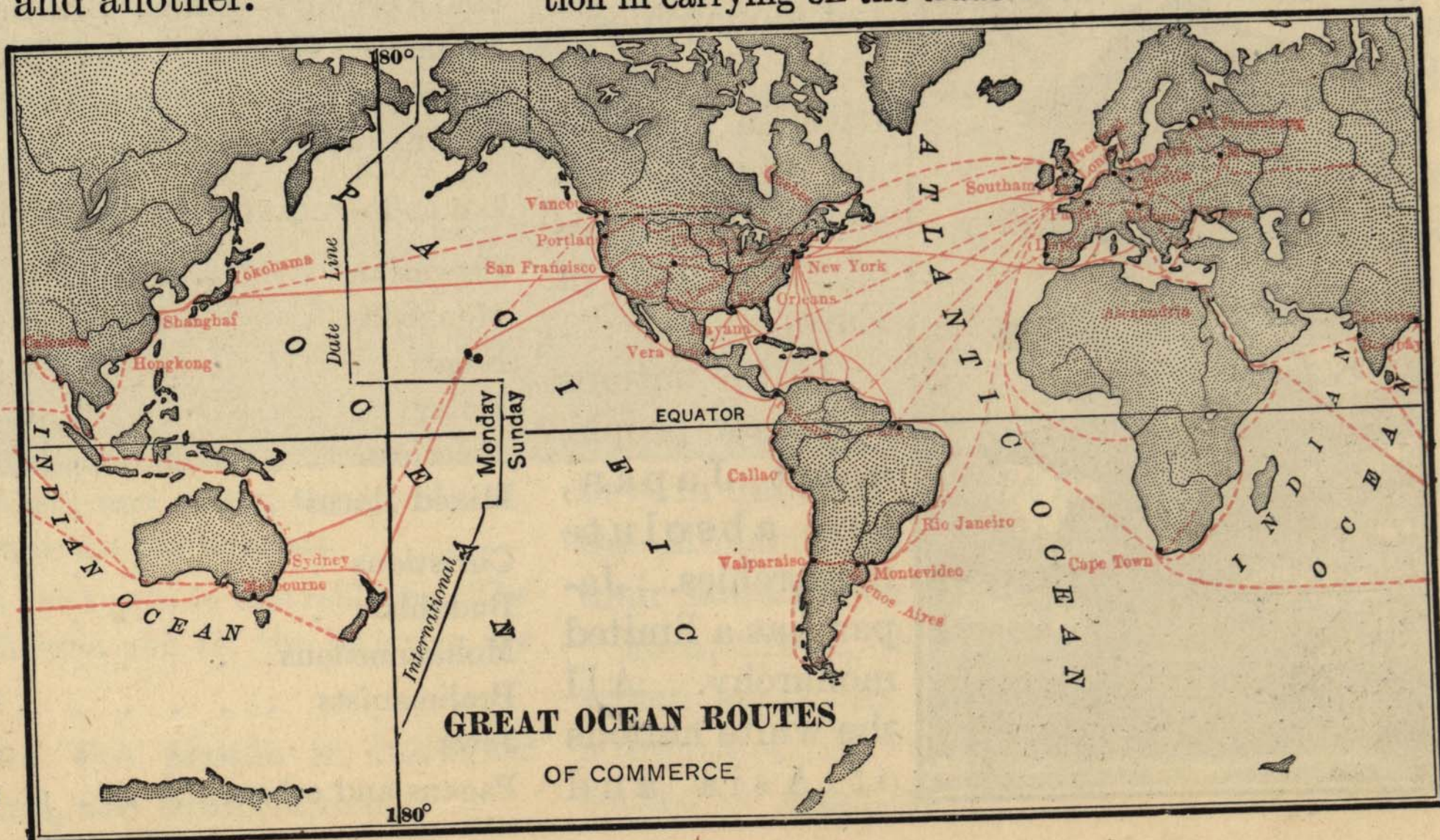
The oceans form the main highway of trade between distant nations. The sea spreads in one vast body around the continents, so that a ship can sail from any one of the oceans to all the others.

Many large seaports, such as London, New York, Liverpool, Boston, San Francisco and Montreal, are on deep harbors formed by the slight drowning of river valleys. The harbors are in many cases some distance inland, at the head of the drowned part of the valleys. Tidal currents flowing in and out of the rivers help vessels to enter and clear from the ports.

Thus, London is seventy miles from the mouth of the Thames,—70 miles inland towards the farms and work shops of busy England. Montreal is about 1000 miles up the drowned valley of the St. Lawrence. Philadelphia and Baltimore are near the heads of two bays in slightly-drowned valleys.

England, with her extensive manufactures and her numerous colonies, has grown to be the centre of the world's ocean commerce.

By examining the chart of great ocean routes it will be seen that the world's commerce centres in London. It can also be seen that Canada occupies a central position in carrying on the trade of the British Empire.



Routes of Trade.

We have seen that the same products are not found in all parts of the

earth. The rich prairies are best suited to farming, and the higher plains to grazing. The southern plains yield large harvests of cotton, while the highland of the west produces gold and silver.

If we look into the stores a moment we find tea from China, and coffee from Brazil; spice from Java, and fruit from the groves of California; rubber from a tree in the selvas, and knives that came from the workshops of England.

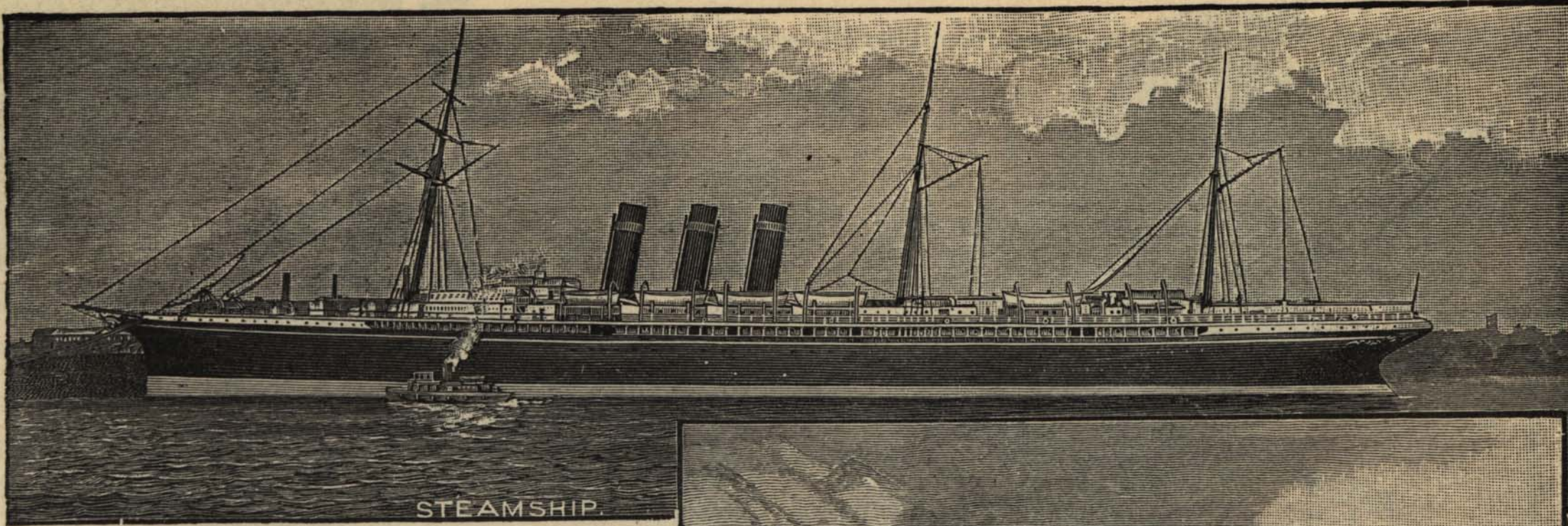
Rivers, railroads and oceans are the chief highways of trade. Much has been done to improve many of these highways. Rocks have been taken out of rivers and harbors, and sandbars have been dredged away. Canals have been made round rapids and waterfalls, as well as from river to river and from sea to sea.

It is far cheaper to carry goods by water than by land. On the sea there are no costly roads nor tracks to build and to keep in repair.

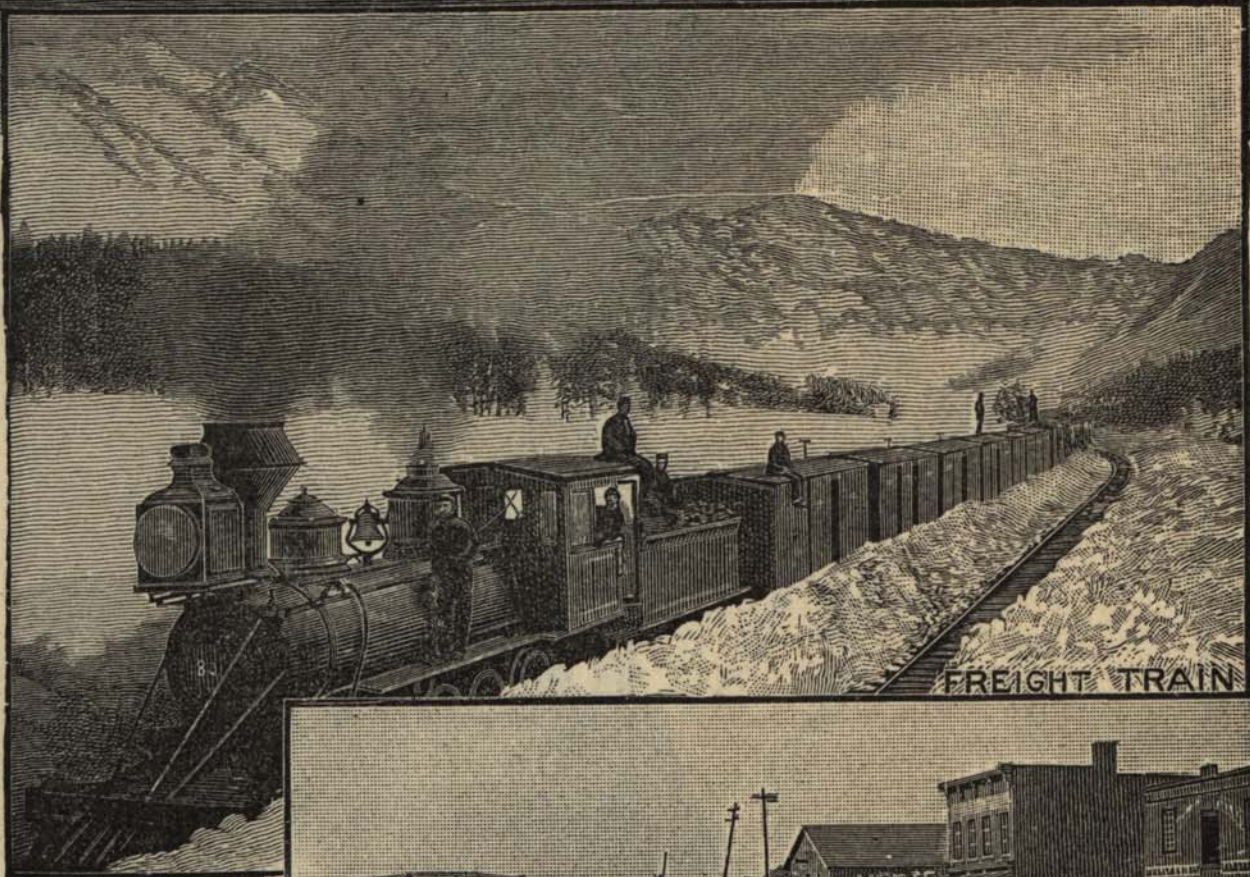
Every producing region needs one or more shipping points. These become centres of trade. They should be within easy reach of all parts of the region, and should connect by water, rail or other route, with the markets of the world.

Railroads cross the continent of North America from ocean to ocean, by half a dozen routes. They run along every seacoast. They wind with great rivers. They climb mountains and cross cañons.

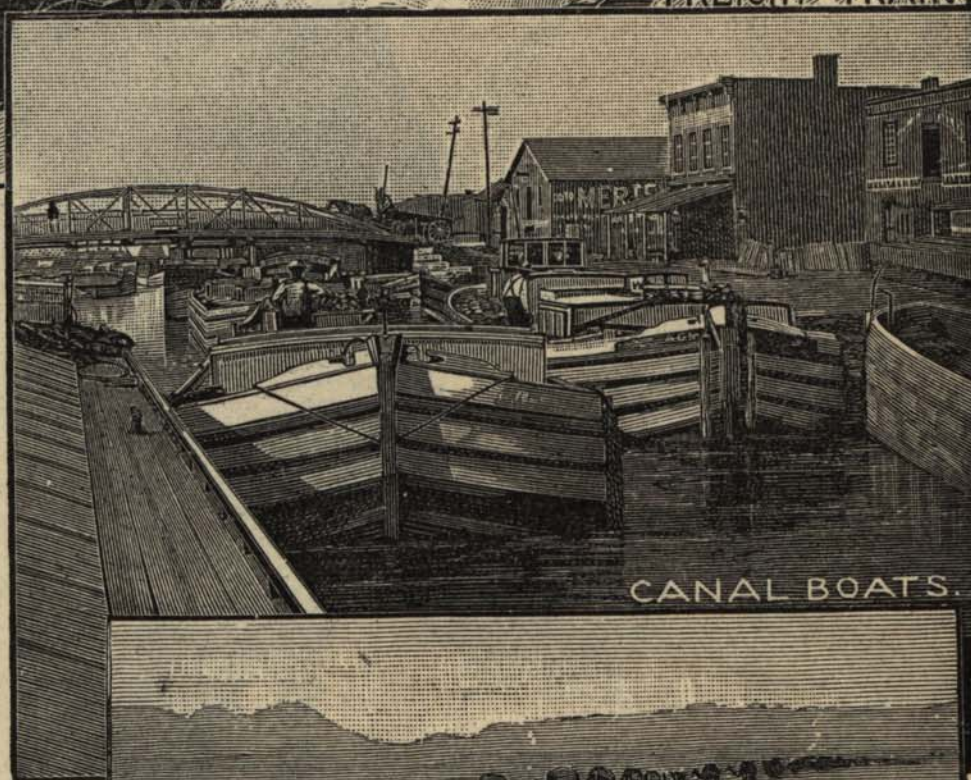
Years ago rivers were the chief highways of inland trade, but now railroads have taken first place. To-day cities and towns are dotted all along the lines where freight trains gather up the products of farm, forest and mine.



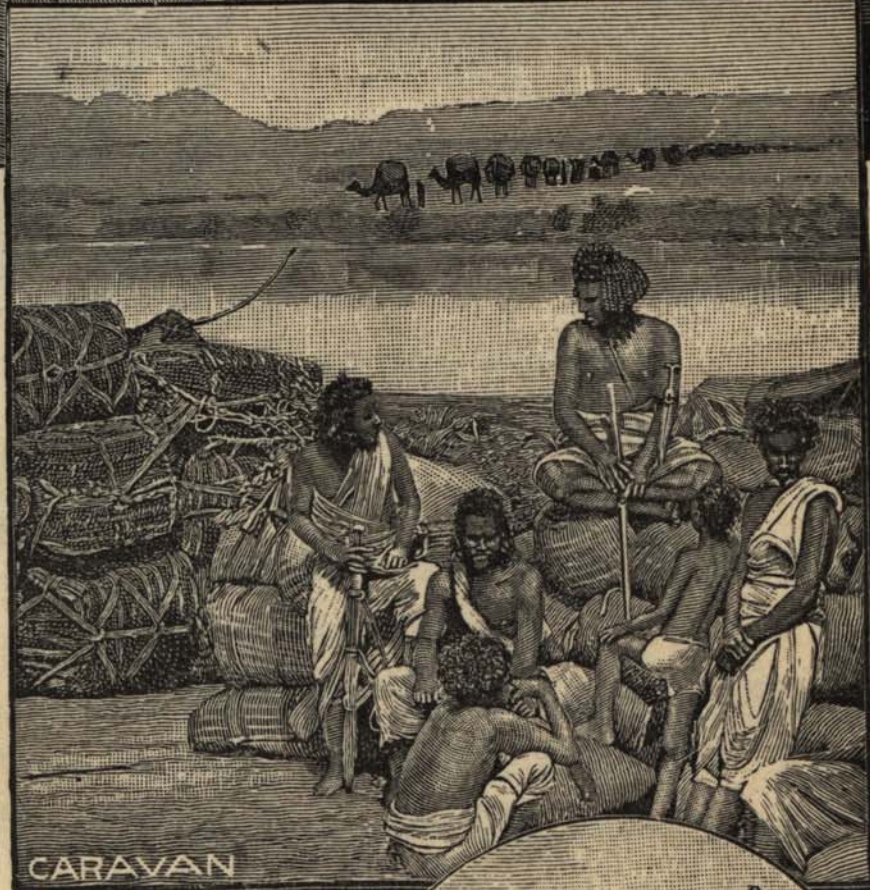
STEAMSHIP.



FREIGHT TRAIN.



CANAL BOATS.



CARAVAN





RELIEF MAP OF NORTH AMERICA.

NORTH AMERICA.

1. Map Studies.

On the relief map of North America locate the place where you live.

What oceans border on North America? What continent adjoins it on the south? In what direction is Europe from North America? Which part of our continent lies nearest Asia?

Turn to the map of the heat belts and tell what you can about the seasons in North America? See pages 23 and 24.

Which part of North America is in the path of the westerly winds? Of the trade winds? See page 15.

In what direction does the Rocky Mountain highland extend? Along which side of the continent does it lie?

Which part of this highland looks the highest? The widest?

Into what gulf does the Colorado river flow? Name a large river flowing into Bering sea.

Where is the Appalachian highland? In what direction does it extend? Is it higher or lower than the Rocky Mountain highland? Is it longer or shorter? Wider or narrower?

On which side of the Rocky Mountains are there vast plains? Name the largest river flowing into the gulf of Mexico. What highlands are on the east, and west sides of the Mississippi basin? Which part of the central plain is drained by the Mississippi river and its branches?

What river forms the outlet of the Great Lakes? What highlands are separated by the valley of this river?

Which portion of the central plain is in the basin of the Nelson river? Into what bay does this river flow?

Describe the course of the Mackenzie river. Which part of the central plain does it drain?

What are the names of the longest two rivers that flow into the Pacific ocean?



What bodies of water partly surround the peninsula of Florida? The peninsula of Labrador? The peninsula of Alaska? The peninsula of Lower California?

Name the largest river that flows into the gulf of California. Into the Arctic ocean.

Compare the size of the basins of the St. Lawrence, Mackenzie, Nelson and Mississippi rivers.

In what direction does the St. Lawrence river flow? The Missouri? The Yukon? The Rio Grande? The Colorado? The Ohio? The Nelson? The Mississippi?

Sketch the general outline of North America, using only three straight lines. In what general direction does the east coast extend? The west coast? The north coast? Which coast is the longest?

Draw the north coast of this continent; the west coast; the east coast. Which is the most irregular?

2. Shape and Surface.

North America is broad in the north, but it tapers towards the south. This continent covers nearly one-twentieth of the earth's surface.

North America consists mainly of a great western highland, a lesser eastern highland, and a central plain. It is a large triangle in shape, and the Rocky Mountains divide it into two slopes; a short slope to-



wards the west, and a long slope towards the east. The eastern slope is broken by the Appalachian or Alleghany Mountains, and by the Laurentian Highlands. The Appalachian Mountains are near the eastern coast of the United States. The Laurentian Highlands extend from the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the River St. Lawrence, and the Great Lakes towards the Arctic Ocean west of Hudson Bay.

3. Climate.

This continent crosses the warm and the cool belts, and also enters the cold belt on the north and the hot belt on the south. Only a small part of the continent is in the hot or the cold regions. Far the greater part is in the belts having cold or cool winters and warm or hot summers.

In the warm belt the winter is short and mild, but northward the cold season lengthens, till near the Arctic coast there are only a few weeks of mild weather each summer. The extreme north of the continent is cold and dreary.

Only the southernmost part of North America is reached in summer by the equatorial rains. The highland of Mexico receives rains from the trade winds on its eastern slopes, but the western slopes are not well-watered. The wide middle portion of the continent is in the path of the eddying storms of the westerly winds.

The westerly winds from over the North-Pacific eddy give a mild and even climate to the greater part of the west coast of North America, for the seasons over the broad ocean do not change so much as over the land.

In the interior of the continent, far from the sea, the summers are very warm and the winters very cold. There, the change of seasons is much greater than near the coast.

On the east coast the winter weather is mild when the southeast wind blows from over the Gulf stream, but is very chilling when the northeast wind from over the Arctic current reaches the land, or when cold air flows out from the interior of the continent.

When the cold heavy air of winter covers the interior of North America, not much moist air can flow in, and the inland rainfall is therefore not very heavy. When



the warm light air of summer spreads over the interior, the moist winds from the sea flow inland and give plentiful rains, except on the lowlands among the western mountains and on the plains along the eastern base of the Rocky mountains.

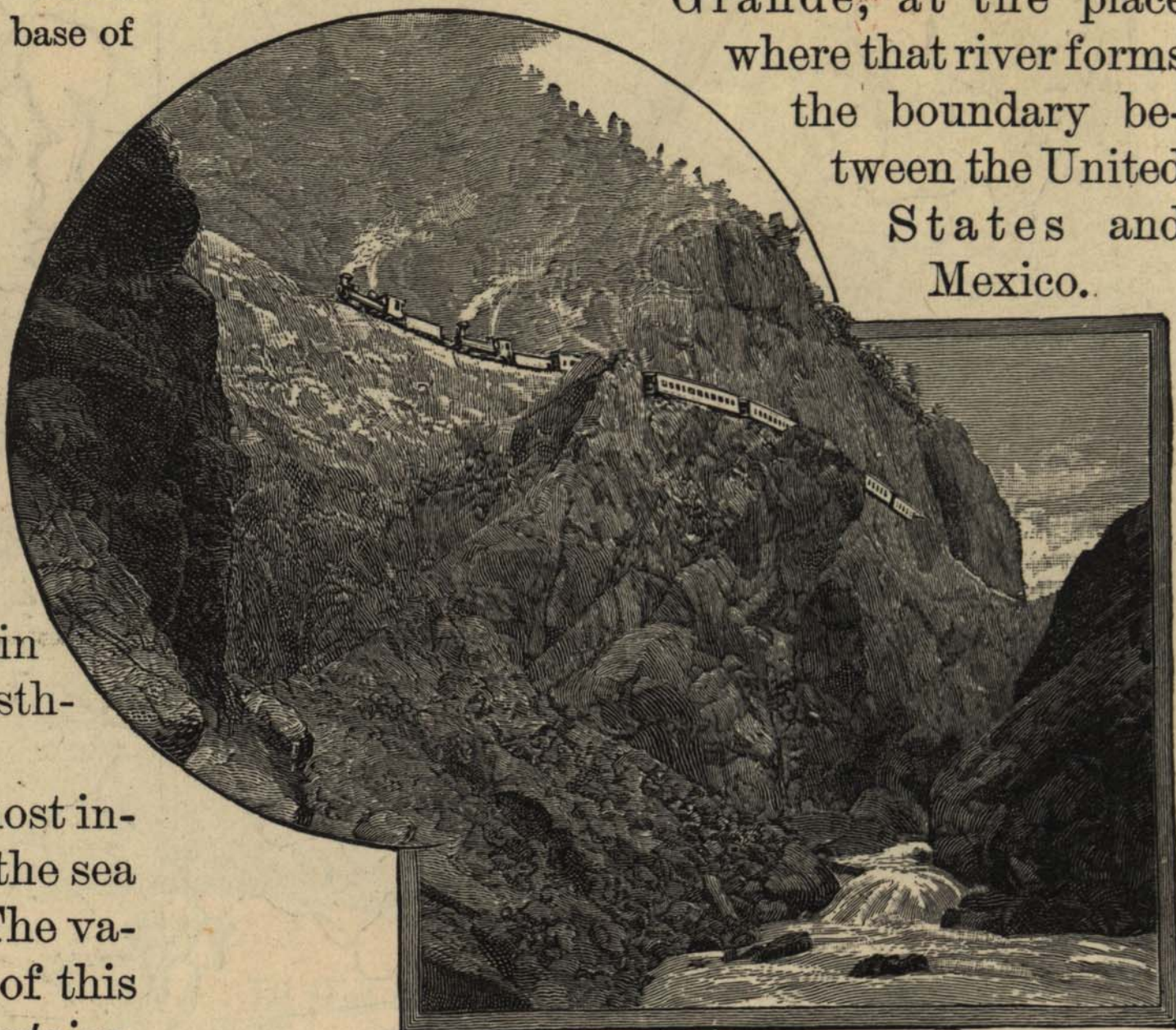
4. Rocky Mountain Highlands.

The plateau of Mexico is about a mile and a half above the sea level. High ranges of mountains lie along its borders, and steep slopes descend from them to the shores on the east and west coasts. The highest range, named the Sierra Madre, runs along the west coast.

The widest part of the Rocky Mountain highland is about midway between the isthmus of Panama and Bering strait.

In this broad portion, lofty ranges almost inclose a vast plateau, about a mile above the sea level and several hundred miles wide. The various ranges lying along the eastern side of this plateau are known as the *Rocky mountains*.

This chain extends far northward into the basin of the Yukon river, and southward to the Rio Grande, at the place where that river forms the boundary between the United States and Mexico.



Crossing the Rockies.

The Great Basin north of Mexico consists of a number of plateaus and valleys framed in by several mountain ranges. The most important of these ranges are the Rocky mountains on the east, the Sierra Nevada and Cascade ranges on the west, and the Wasatch range, running between the Rocky and Sierra Nevada ranges.

West of the Sierra Nevada and Cascade mountains lie several mountain ridges forming a low *Coast range*. Being near the ocean, and in the path of the westerly winds, this range has a milder and more uniform climate than the regions in the interior of the continent. Most parts of the range are wooded.

The Cascade range and the Rocky mountains continue through British Columbia. Towards the north the ranges become generally lower, but just before the Rocky mountains enter Alaska there are two peaks, Mount St. Elias and Mount Logan, which are the highest



Canon of Colorado.



above which rise hills and mountains. The surface is also broken by many valleys, in which lakes abound.

The highest group of peaks in this highland is known as the *White Mountains*. The Connecticut valley, with its fine farming lands, lies between this group and the *Green Mountains*.

Mount Washington, one of the White Mountains, is the highest peak in the northeast part of the United States.

The rolling or hilly slope of the New England highland reaches to the sea. The cities and towns of this region are nearly all on the sea coast or near the falls

peaks in the entire Rocky Mountain range. They are in Canada a short distance east of Alaska. Mount Logan, recently discovered, is about a quarter of a mile higher than Mount St. Elias. Mount Logan is 19,500 ft. in height, and Mount St. Elias 18,010.

In the far northwest, the ranges of the Rocky mountain highland spread apart in the great peninsula of Alaska. The main range bends westward along the coast, to the end of the Alaskan peninsula.

The western coast of British America and the southwest shore of Alaska have a mild climate, although so far from the equator. The ocean winds are there warmed by the drift from the Japan current. Warm moist winds from the sea are chilled in rising over the mountain slopes in Alaska, and therefore yield very heavy snowfall.



Water Carrier,
Mexico.

5. The Appalachian Highland.

The portion of the Old Appalachian range known as the *New England highland* stretches from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the Hudson river. This highland consists of a broad and rolling upland,



Mexican Village.

in the rivers. Boston is the greatest seaport in this region.

The surface of the New England highland was heavily scoured by the ancient ice-sheet from the Laurentian highland.

The weaker rocks were worn away, and rock waste was left unevenly spread over the region. When the



Century Plants, Mexico.

ice melted, the streams were held back in the scoured basins and behind the barriers of drift, or rock waste, thus forming numerous lakes. Many of the streams were pushed aside from their old valleys, and were made to flow over ledges from which they now fall in rapids and cascades. Since the ice melted, there has not been time for the streams to cut down the ledges and drain the lakes. Towns and cities have grown up at the falls and rapids where water power is supplied to many mills and factories.

For some distance south-west of the Hudson river, the Old Appalachian range is neither so high nor so wide as in the New England highland. This lower part looks like a long and narrow plateau. Still farther south-west, the old range becomes higher and wider, and is there called the *Blue ridge*.



New York and Brooklyn.

On the south the Blue ridge runs into the Carolina highland which contains the highest peaks in the whole range.

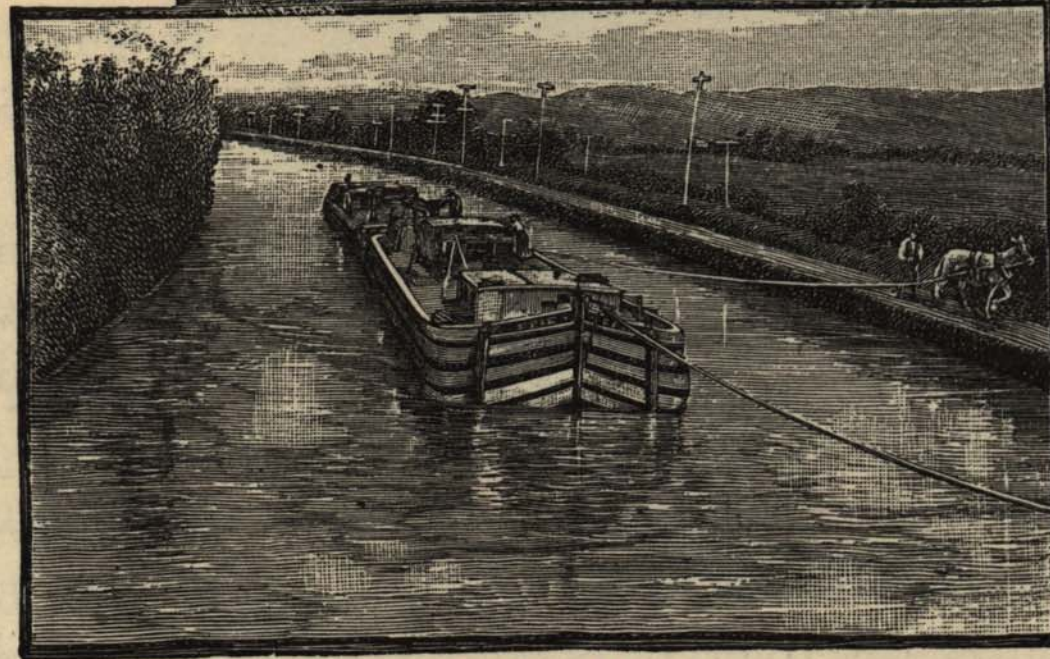
Mt. Mitchell is about a mile and a quarter high and overtops all other peaks in the Appalachian highland.

The slope east of the Blue ridge and Carolina highland is a hilly region, gradually descending to the wide coastal plain with its farm lands, its pine forests, and its cypress swamps.

The Great Valley in the Appalachian highland is a long lowland, with mountains on the east and the west. At the north, the Great Valley opens into the St. Lawrence basin; and at the south, into the Gulf coastal plain. The greater part of the long valley is covered with farms.

The largest rivers rising in the Appalachian region do not run *along* the Great Valley but *across* it, and escape by deep and narrow gorges worn through the inclosing highland. The Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac, and James rivers rise in the highland *west* of the Great Valley, and flow across the valley and the Old Appalachian range. The Tennessee river rises in the old range *east* of the long valley, but flows westward across the valley and reaches the Ohio river.

The most important of these cross-gorges in



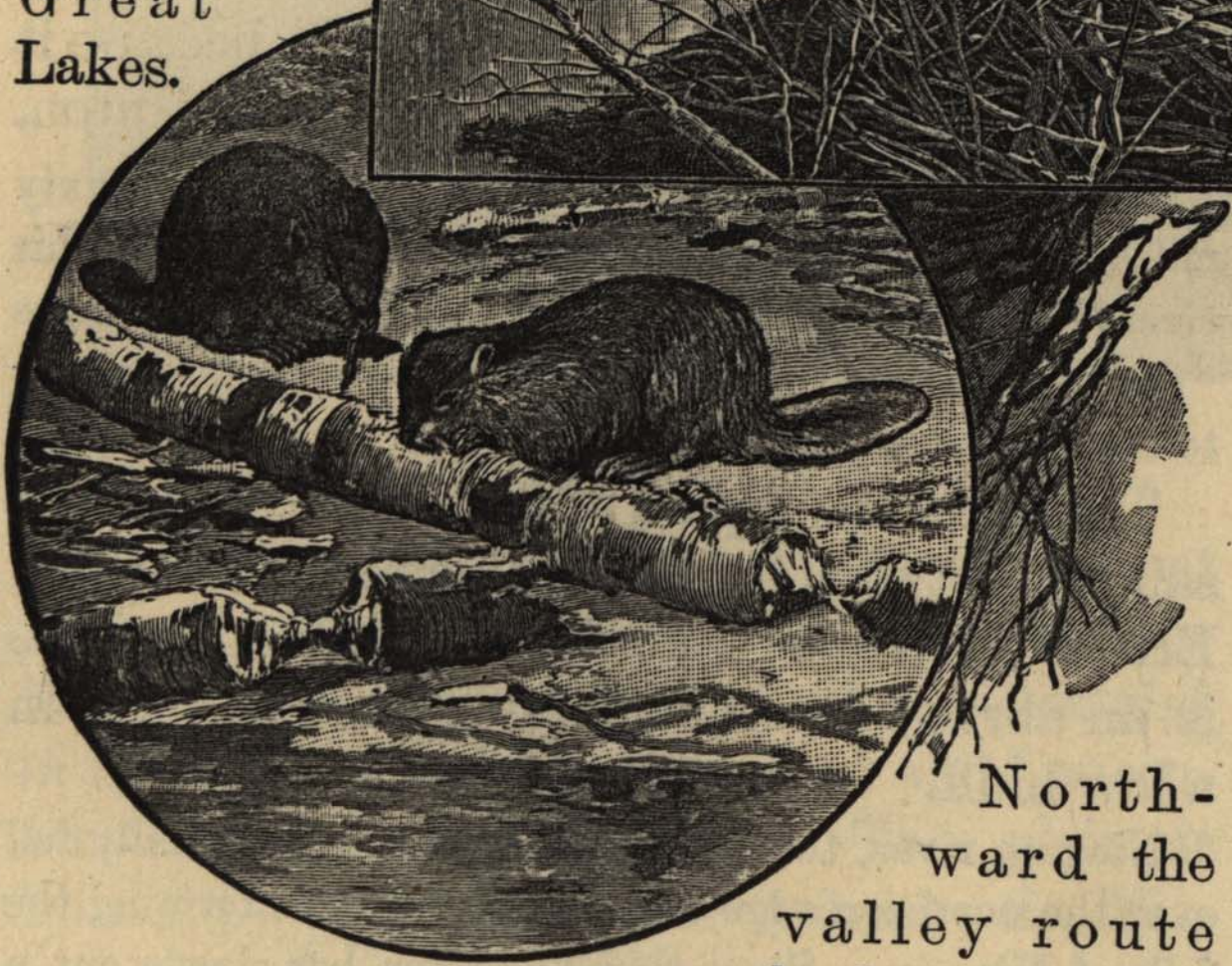
Erie Canal.



Mountain Formed of Folded Rocks.

NOTE.—The picture of a mountain fold should be carefully examined by the pupils in order that they may learn how mountain ranges were really formed. In the gradual cooling of the earth the outer crust became too large, and in shrinking, certain parts folded outwards and formed the world's highlands.

the Appalachian range is that of the Hudson river, for it unites with other valleys to make an open highway northward to the St-Lawrence basin, and westward up the Mohawk river towards the Great Lakes.



Northward the valley route leads through

Lake George and Lake Champlain.

Nearly three-fourths of a century ago, the long *Erie canal* was built along the Mohawk branch of the Great Valley, from Lake Erie to the Hudson river. This canal furnishes a cheap route of trade between the great lakes and the Atlantic sea coast. Railroads now follow closely along the same route.

6. The Laurentian Highland.

The St. Lawrence river flows in a valley that separates the Laurentian highland from the Appalachian.

The Laurentian highland extends from the Labrador peninsula southwest towards the Great Lakes; thence running north of these bodies of water, the highland bends to the northwest and approaches the Arctic coast not far from the west shore of Hudson bay.

Northwest of the St. Lawrence gulf and river the highland is a desolate region strewn with boulders and broken by valleys. Bare rocky hills rise in some places, but no part deserves the name of mountain range.

This region was once more mountainous than it now is, but ages ago it was worn down.

The northeast part of Canada has sunk partly beneath the sea, making the coast line very irregular.

Work of Beavers.

The St. Lawrence valley was thus partly drowned, forming a broad gulf and carrying the navigable water far inland.

In the valleys of the low plateau are many lakes and swamps through which streams flow. Near these grow thick forests that make travelling very difficult.

Many fur-bearing animals are found in this region. Among these are beavers, foxes, martens and muskrats. Two species of large deer, the moose and the caribou, graze on mosses and tender shoots of trees in this cold country. Ducks, geese and other sea-fowl abound along the rocky shores.

Far to the north and northeast of the Laurentian highland are many large islands. Ages ago these were probably part of the continent, and were afterwards separated from it by the sinking of the land. The largest of these islands is Greenland.

7. The St. Lawrence Basin.

The Great Lakes between Canada and the United States fill hollows on the southward slope of the Laurentian highland. These lakes and the St. Lawrence river with the streams



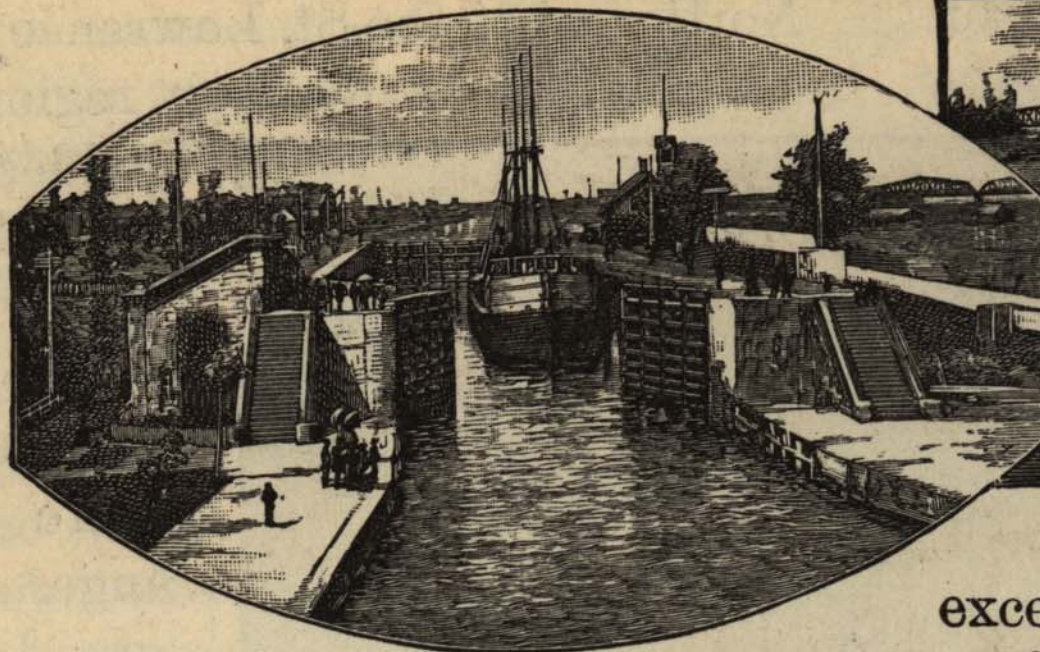
Elk.

and rivers flowing into them, form the St. Lawrence system.

The basins of the Great Lakes were deepened, though not wholly

formed, by the scouring of the ancient ice-sheet that moved across them from the Laurentian highland.

No long slopes send large rivers to the Great Lakes.



Lock in the Soo Canal.



Rapids in the St. Mary's Strait.

except Erie, descend below the sea level. The surface of Lake Superior is about an eighth of a mile higher than the mouth of the St. Lawrence. The outlet of this lake is known as St. Mary's strait. It is not navigable, because it descends in rapids to the level of Lake Huron.

The so-called *St. Mary's strait* is a river about sixty miles long. Which picture shows the rapids in this river? Vessels avoid these rapids by going through the "Soo" canal. One of the pictures shows a steamer ready to come from the canal lock.

There are no rapids to prevent vessels from sailing between lakes Michigan, Huron and Erie, but between lakes Erie and Ontario there is an abrupt descent of the upland country, in a low bluff.

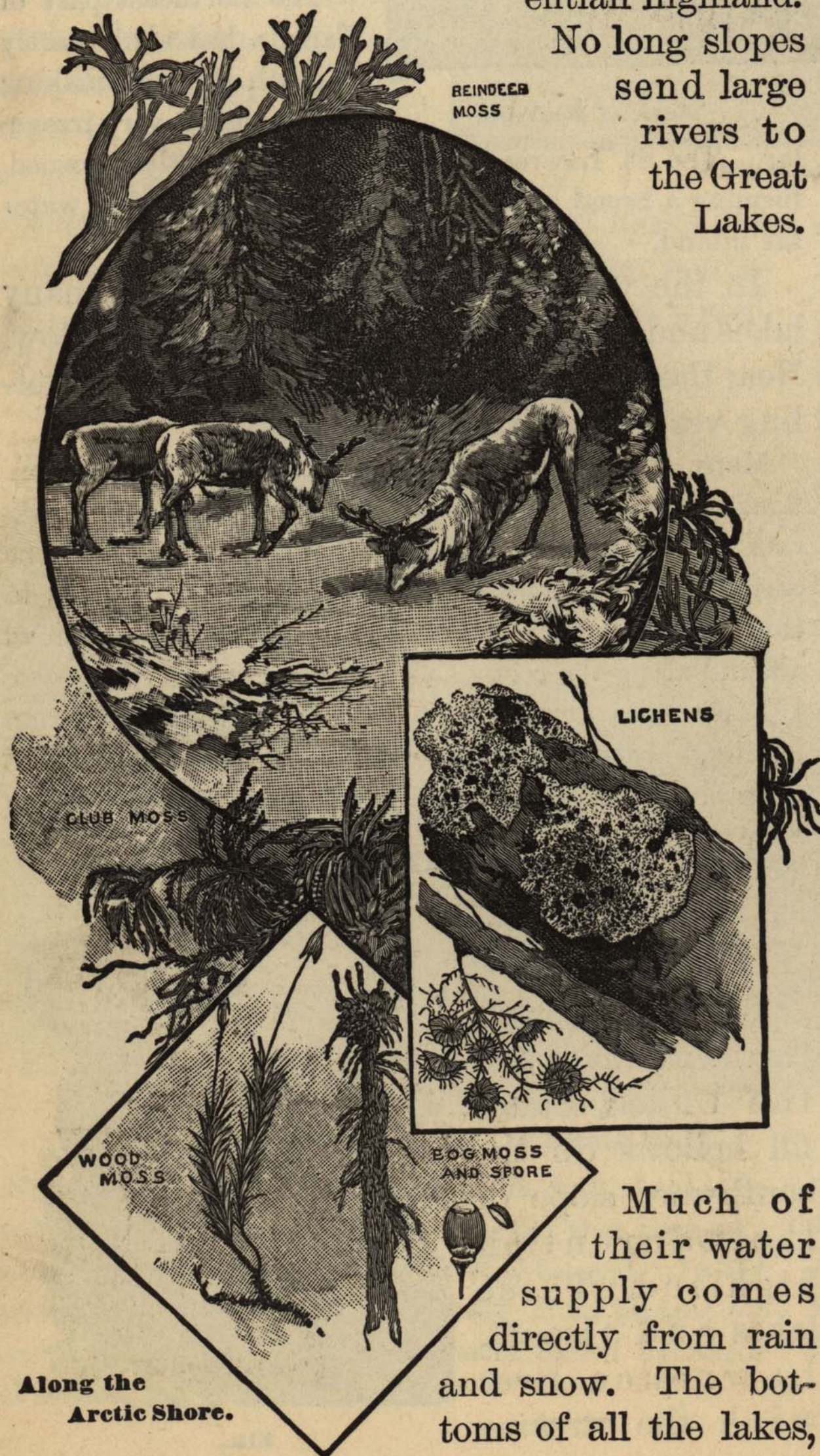
Niagara river, the outlet of Lake Erie, originally fell over the northern edge of this upland, thus forming the falls of Niagara. Since then the river has slowly cut a deep gorge back into the bluff,—the falls always keeping at the head of the gorge. They are now about six miles back from the edge of the bluff.

The falls of Niagara are about three-fourths of a mile wide and one hundred and fifty feet high. Below the falls, the river rushes through its long gorge, making rapids of great size and grandeur.

The cliffs at Niagara consist of layers of limestone on softer rock. From time to time, as the lower rock is worn away, huge masses of limestone break off and fall into the gorge. The stream must have worked thousands of years to cut this great valley, yet that time is short compared with the period during which the Hudson river was cutting its long gorge.

A large water-way, known as the Welland canal, has been made to join lakes Erie and Ontario.

From Lake Ontario the St. Lawrence river forms a water-way to the sea. The river has rapids, but canals have been built past them.



Along the Arctic Shore.

Much of their water supply comes directly from rain and snow. The bottoms of all the lakes,

The St. Lawrence system is the best inland water way in the world. Hundreds of large steamers and other vessels help to carry on trade between the lake ports of Canada and the United States and the rest of the world, and bear away the products of the mines, the farms, the forests and the workshops.



Prairie Farm.

Several large lakes extend northwestward in the basins of the Nelson and Mackenzie rivers. These bodies of water, together with the Great Lakes, form a remarkable chain stretching along the south and southwest borders of the old Laurentian highland.



8. The Great Central Plain.

The main portion of North America is a great plain extending from the Gulf of Mexico to the Arctic Ocean, between the Rocky mountains on the west, and the Appalachian and Laurentian highlands on the east. This plain is drained by three great river systems; the Mississippi system, the St. Lawrence system, and the northern system, the chief rivers of which are the Mackenzie and Nelson. The height of land dividing these river systems is near the boundary between the United States and Canada.

The northern slope is chiefly in Canada and contains the great wheat belt, and the best grazing lands of North America. Along the western part of this slope the climate is influenced by the warm winds that come from the Pacific Ocean.

Along the Arctic shore there are low level plains from seventy to one hundred miles wide. South of these plains a large part of the country is covered with forests, till the immense tracts of level land forming Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta are reached. In these provinces the wooded districts lie chiefly near the rivers, and are called bluffs.

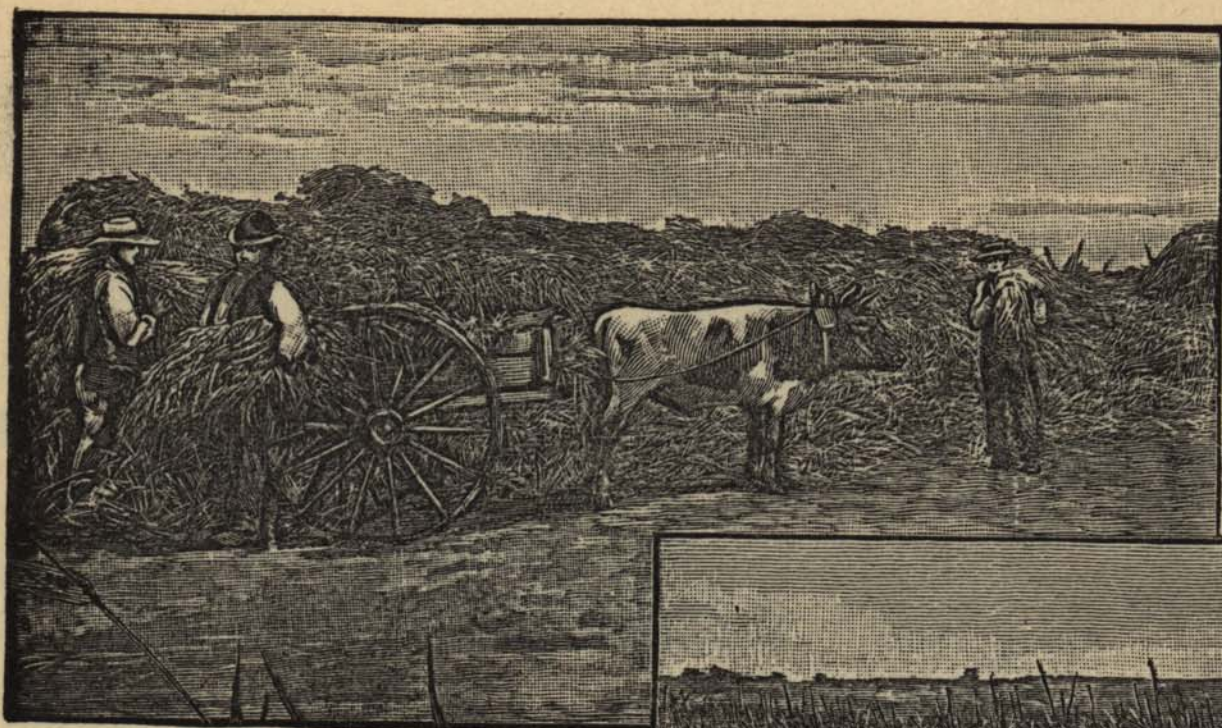
The basin of the Nelson river is mostly in the cool belt. The southern part of that basin includes the wide fertile prairies of the Red River valley—famous for their crops of wheat; for although the winters are very cold, the summers have long days of strong sunshine, and plants grow there very rapidly.

Ages ago a great lake covered the region now known as the Red River prairies. Muddy streams flowed into the lake, and fine soil settled evenly over the bottom. When the lake was drained, the smooth bottom became a level plain. The water flowed off long ago, and yet the plain is so young that streams have hardly cut its surface.

The lowlands in the upper Mississippi valley



Going to Market, New Orleans.



consist of level or rolling grassy plains, called *prairies*. They merge into the forest lands on the east and south, into dry plains on the west, and into colder plains on the north. They form one of the richest grain regions of the world.

South of the prairies lies the southern plain. The greater part of this plain is low rolling upland. It is cut into eastern and western parts by the wide flood plain of the Mississippi river.

The part near the shore is young, but farther inland the plain is older and much worn by streams that have extended their courses across it from the higher and older interior.

A large part of the Gulf coast is low, sandy and barren. Nearly all parts of the Southern plain were at one time wooded, and forests still cover the greater portion



Rice Culture.

of the region. Pine lumber is a valuable product of these forests.

Large districts in the South have been cleared of trees, and now rank among the most productive parts of the country. Cotton is the leading crop on these cleared lands.

Rice thrives on low flood plains and on the swampy borders of lagoons behind coastal sand bars.

9. The Atlantic Coastal Plain.

East of the Appalachian highlands lies the Atlantic coastal plain. This plain has been formed from soil carried down by the rivers from the Appalachian range, and by the Mississippi river and Gulf stream. As in the Gulf coastal plain, the region near the sea is young and smooth, while the plain farther inland is older and is more deeply and widely cut by streams that flow across it from the Appalachian highland.

The widest part of the Atlantic coastal plain is southeast of the Carolina highland. Thence the plain narrows northeastward to the mouth of the Hudson river.

The southern part of this coastal plain is in the warm belt and



CUTTING SUGAR CANE



COTTON PLANT



PINE FOREST ALA

has seasons like those of the Gulf coastal plain. The northern part of the Atlantic coastal plain has the seasons of the cool belt. South-east winds from over the warm Gulf stream help to make the winters of this coastal plain milder than those of the inland regions in the same latitude.

The long Atlantic coastal plain has plenty of rainfall. It is brought by winds from over the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic Ocean.

In the southern part of the plain, the land slopes so gently under the sea that good harbors are found only in the river mouths. Sand bars, built by waves, lie along the coast and partly inclose many sounds. Inlets through the sand bars are kept open by tidal currents.

Large quantities of rice are raised in the wet lands in the warmer parts of the Atlantic coastal plain, as well as in the Gulf coastal plain. This grain thrives in lagoon swamps inside the sand bars, and in river swamps which at certain times can be flooded or drained.

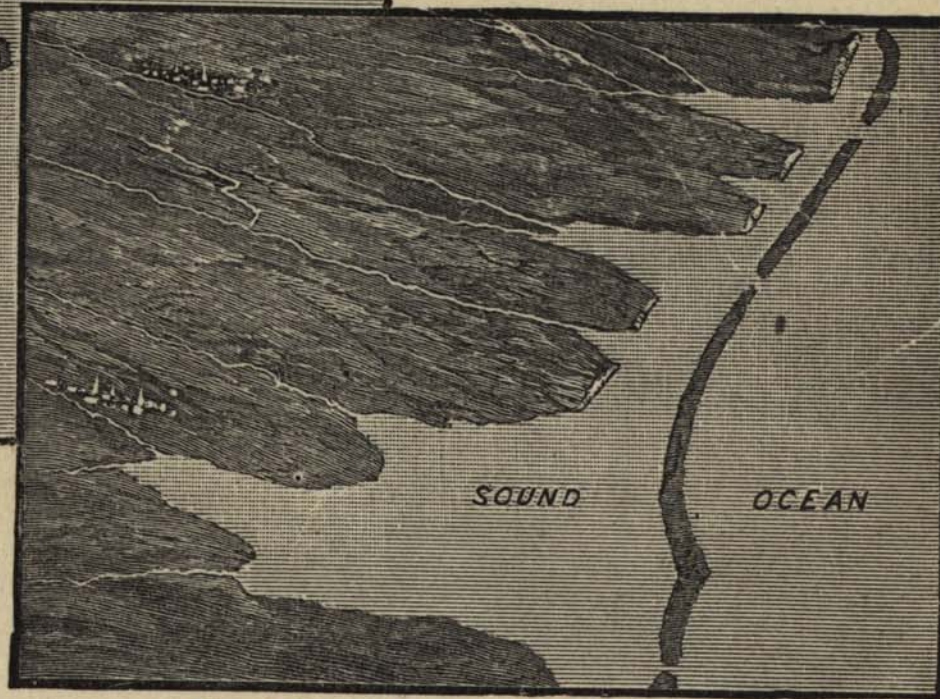
The best cotton in the world grows on some

of these border islands and on the shores of the mainland near by. The soil is sandy, but the plants which grow on it produce long and fine fibres.

The peninsula of Florida, lying between



Old Coastline.



New Coastline showing Bars.

the gulf and the ocean, is chiefly a coastal plain formed by the uplifting of the sea-bottom, but partly also the work of coral polyps. Tiny creatures of this kind, in countless numbers, are still very active in building the southern portion of the peninsula further out into the warm Gulf stream.

10. The West Indies.

South-east of Florida lie several groups of islands, known as the West Indies. These consist mainly of huge banks of shell and coral limestone. Only small parts of the great banks rise above the water.

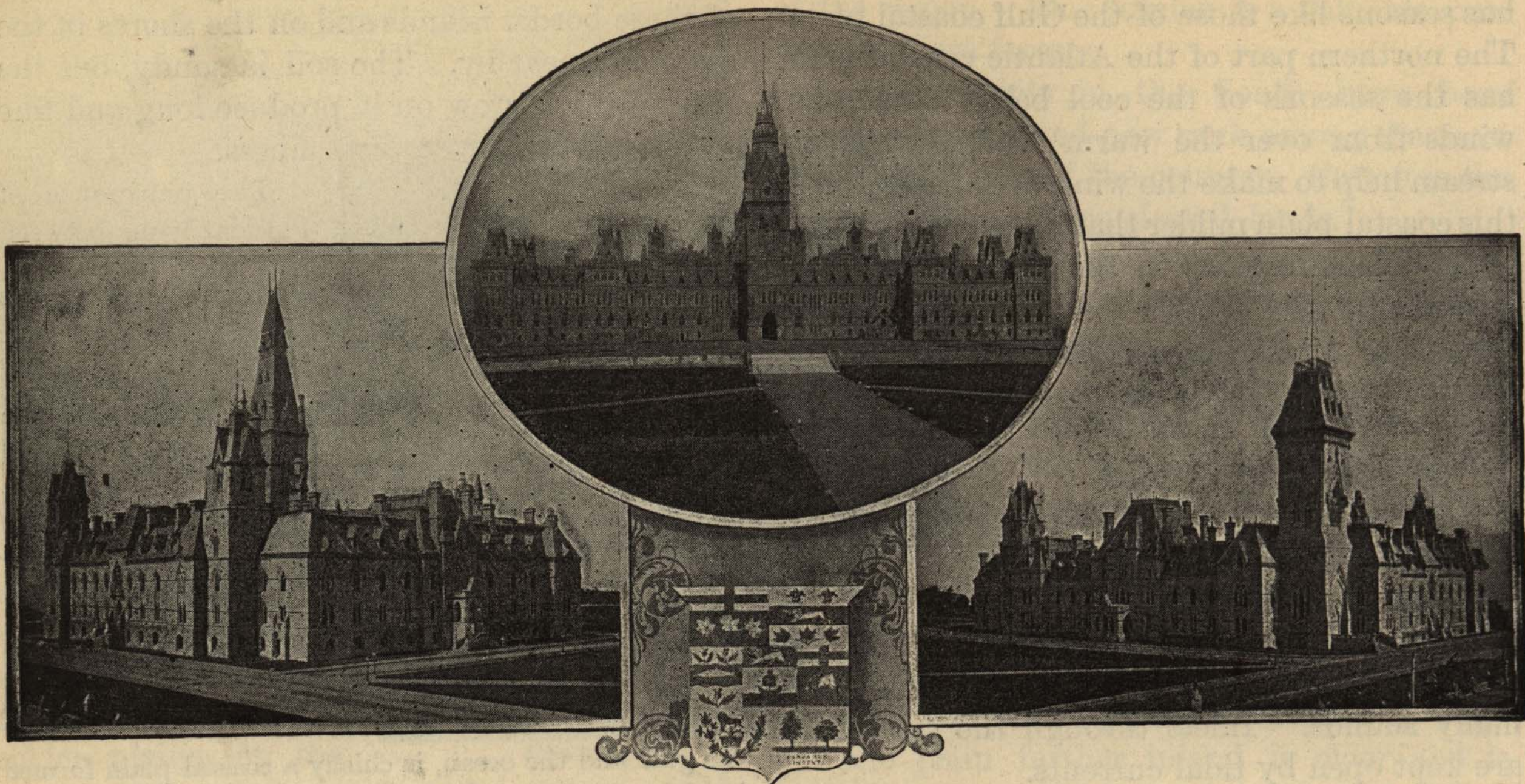
The larger islands of the West Indies are mostly the upper portions of mountainous country that has been partly drowned. The flooded valleys in this region form many large and deep harbors. Many of the small islands stretching in a chain to the northern coast of South America are almost wholly volcanic.

The large islands, Cuba, Hayti, Jamaica and Porto Rico, are called the Greater Antilles, the smaller West India islands are called the Lesser Antilles.

NOTE.—The West Indies are not really parts of the coastal plain, but owing to their position, they may be studied here.



Orange Grove.



Dominion Parliament Buildings, Ottawa.

DOMINION OF CANADA.

NOTE.—The physical description of Canada has been given under "North America."

1. Map Studies.

Write in detail the southern boundaries of Canada. What parallel of latitude forms this boundary for a considerable distance?

Name the three oceans that bound Canada. Name two oceans between Canada and Russia. *See map page 4.* On which coast are there the fewest large bays? Why?

Name the Great Lakes between Canada and the United States. Which of the Great Lakes is wholly in the United States? What river is the outlet of the Great Lakes?

What does the relief map of Canada show about the surface of Canada? Find the names of the two great mountain chains of British Columbia. *See map page 55.*

Which country has the greater number of lakes, United States or Canada? Why are there so many small lakes in one country and so few in the other?

What is the greatest Canadian river west of the Rocky mountains? Locate the Mackenzie and Saskatchewan rivers. What three large lakes are drained by the Mackenzie river? What two great rivers flow into Lake Winnipeg? What river connects Lake Winnipeg with Hudson Bay? Which are the largest three rivers

that flow into Hudson Bay? Into what does the Peace river flow? In what territory is the Mackenzie Basin?

In what belts of temperature is Canada? *See pages 23 and 24.* Why is the western coast much warmer than the eastern coast?

What large bay runs into the north-eastern part of Canada? Why are there no great ocean routes through Hudson Straits? *See page 52.*

On what river is Montreal situated? Quebec? Ottawa? Fredericton? On what two rivers is Winnipeg situated?

What provinces of Canada lie wholly or partially farther south than a considerable part of the United States?

What large island is in the mouth of the St. Lawrence river? At the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence?

What island forms a whole province of Canada? What is the most important Canadian island in the Pacific? Name the chief Canadian islands north of Vancouver Island.

What part of the United States lies north-west of Canada? What large island is separated from Canada by Baffin Bay?

Draw a relief map of Canada showing its highlands and slopes. Draw a map of Canada and place on it: Lakes—Superior, Huron, Erie, Ontario, Winnipeg, Athabasca, Great Slave, Great Bear, Reindeer and Woods; Rivers—St. Lawrence, Mackenzie, Saskatchewan, Red, Assiniboine, Fraser, Yukon, Churchill, Nelson, Peace, Albany, Ottawa and East Main; Straits—Davis, Hudson, Belle Isle, Canso, and Juan de Fuca.

Draw a map of Canada showing the provinces and territories, with their capitals.

2. Canada Past and Present.

A little more than four hundred years ago there was not a white man in the two Continents of America. Canada was then a vast solitude of untilled plains, unbroken forests and lonely mountains. Here and there, by lake or stream, or on the inaccessible brow of a wooded hill, stood a little stockaded town of well-built "lodges," surrounded by a strip of tilled land growing



Indian Teepee.



Blackfeet Indian Sun Dance.

pumpkins and corn; for, some of the forest Indians, such as the Iroquois, Hurons, and certain tribes of the great Algonquin family, had made some

progress towards a rude civilization of their own. The rest of the tribes dwelt in wigwams of bark beside their favorite streams. The present Indian population of Canada is about one hundred thousand.

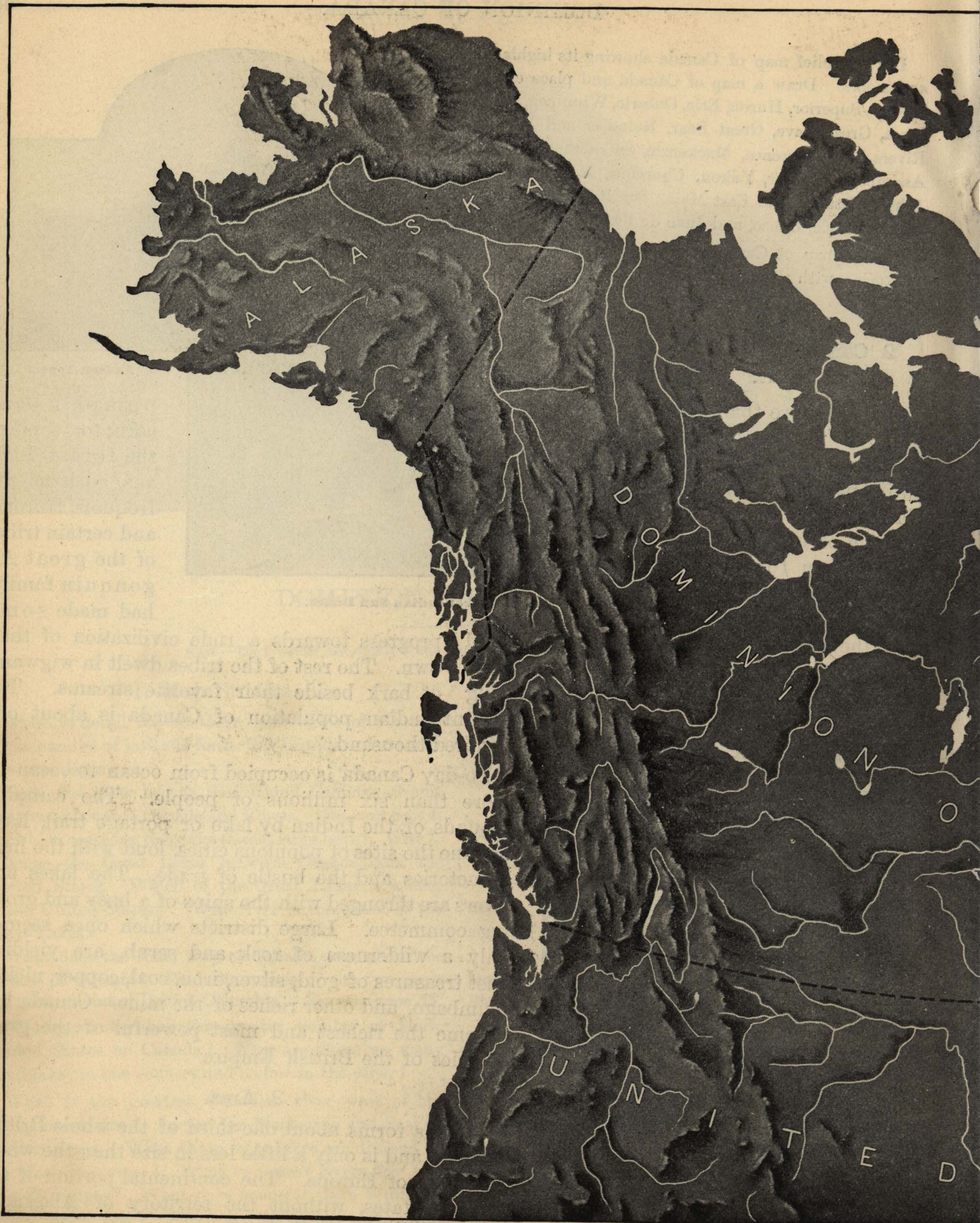
To-day Canada is occupied from ocean to ocean by more than six millions of people. The camping grounds of the Indian by lake or portage trail, have become the sites of populous cities, loud with the hum of factories and the bustle of trade. The lakes and rivers are thronged with the ships of a busy and growing commerce. Large districts which once seemed only a wilderness of rock and scrub, are yielding vast treasures of gold, silver, iron, coal, copper, nickel, plumbago, and other riches of the mine. Canada has become the richest and most powerful of the great colonies of the British Empire.

3. Area.

Canada forms about one-third of the whole British Empire, and is only a little less in size than the whole continent of Europe. The continental portion of the United States, without the territory of Alaska, is



Indian Totem Poles



RELIEF MAP OF THE



DOMINION OF CANADA.

smaller than Canada by about four hundred thousand square miles. In other words, if the United States, without Alaska, were placed upon Canada, British Columbia and half of Alberta would be left uncovered. The one Canadian Province of British Columbia is larger than the European countries of France, Italy, Portugal and Switzerland, taken together. Germany and Switzerland taken together are smaller than Ontario. Nova Scotia is the smallest but one of the provinces of Canada, but it is larger than Switzerland, Holland, Greece, or Denmark. The rivers and lakes of Canada cover so vast an area that if the whole of Great Britain and Ireland were sunk in them there would be nineteen thousand



Looking down the Fraser, near Yale.

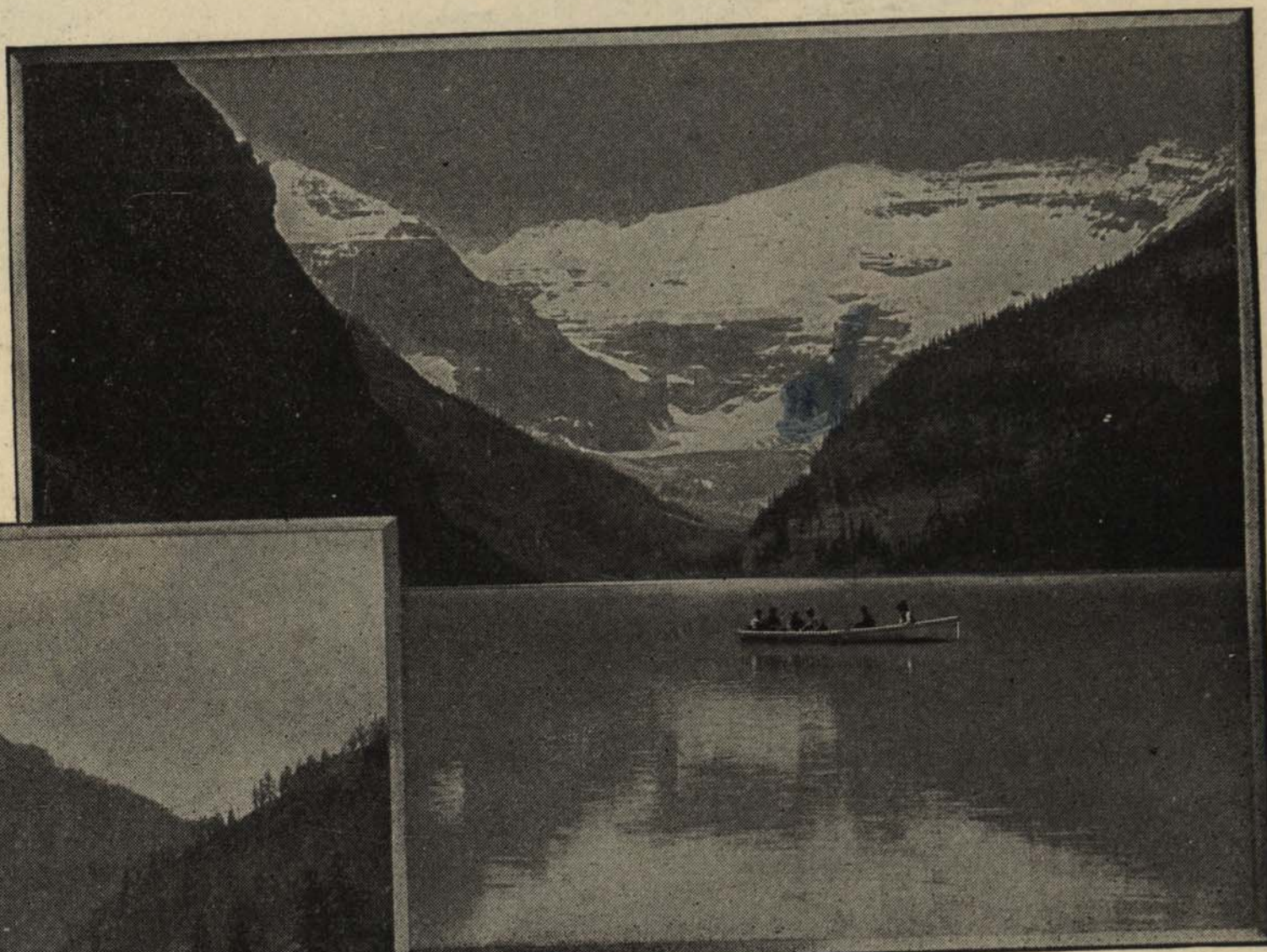
square miles of water left unfilled. If Canada were in the form of a square, a man walking twenty miles a day could not travel once around it in a year.

There are large tracts of Canada which, owing to the climatic and other conditions, can never be available for agricultural purposes, but some of them, such as the Yukon, are rich in minerals.

4. Climate.

Canada lies chiefly in the cool belt, extending on the north into the cold belt. *See maps on pages 23 and 24.*

We may roughly divide Canada, in respect to climate, into three general sections: (1) an eastern region extending almost as far west as Manitoba, and including all the older provinces; (2) an inland region from east of Mani-



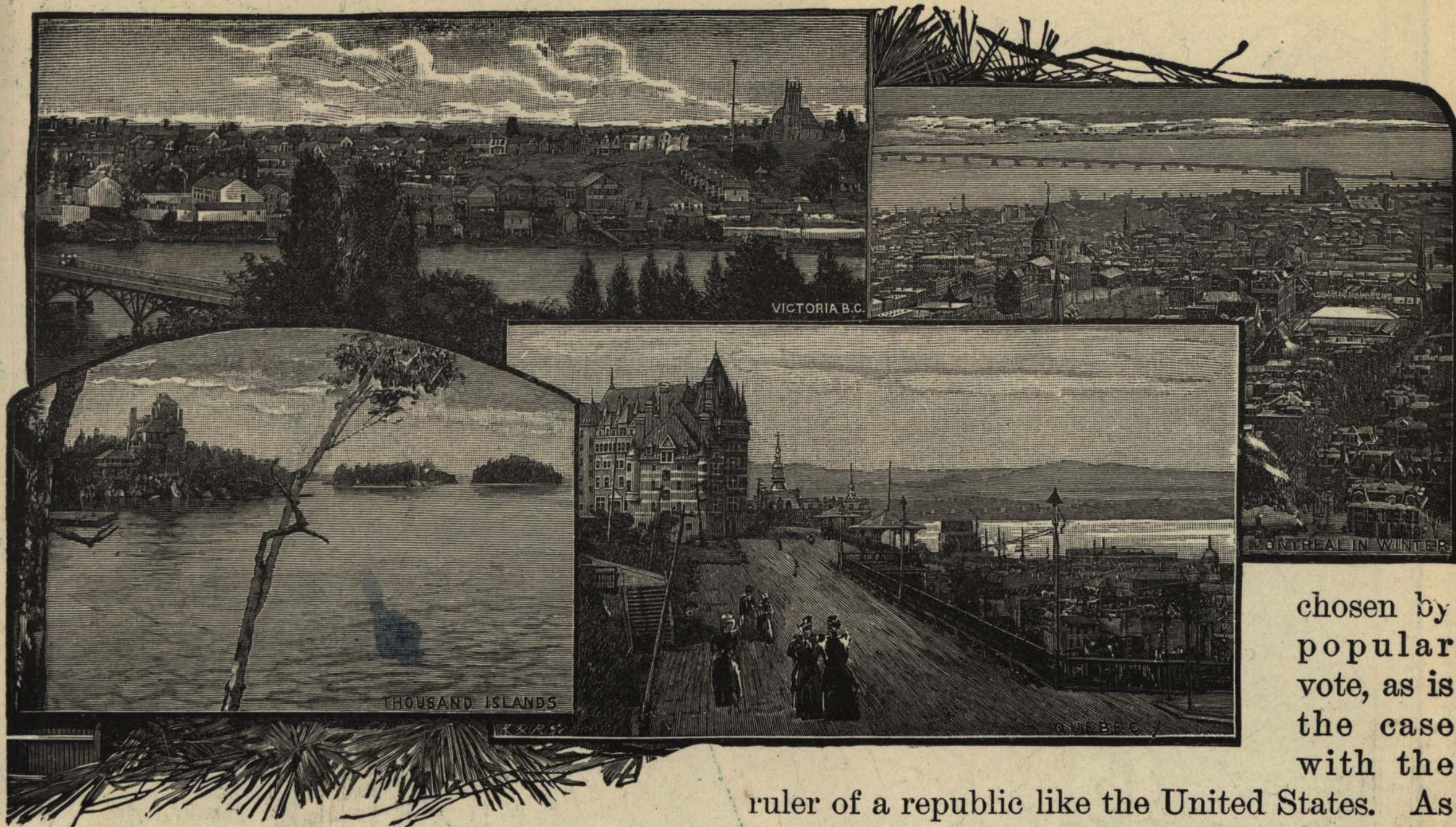
Lake Louise, Alberta.

toba westward to within a short distance of the Pacific coast, embracing Manitoba, the North-West Territories, and the greater part of British Columbia; (3) the Pacific Coast region.

The first division is characterized by ample rainfall, and by a great range of temperature. Its summers are hot; its winters severe.

The second division is characterized by a wide range of temperature, as in the eastern region, but the rainfall here is somewhat restricted. Some of the central and southern sections are apt to suffer from drought.

The third includes a narrow belt along the Pacific Ocean. Here the climate is not subject to so much change, and the rainfall is abundant. Even in winter, the temperature is moderate,



chosen by
popular
vote, as is
the case
with the

along the coast as far north as Alaska, on account of the currents from the equatorial part of the Pacific Ocean, and the warm westerly winds.

The Province of Alberta has a more equable climate than any other part of Canada east of the Rocky Mountains. Cattle can live here on the Great plains in winter. The warm Chinook winds from the Pacific find their way over the mountains, and modify the temperature of this district.

Canada is a land of sunshine, as the following statement shows:—

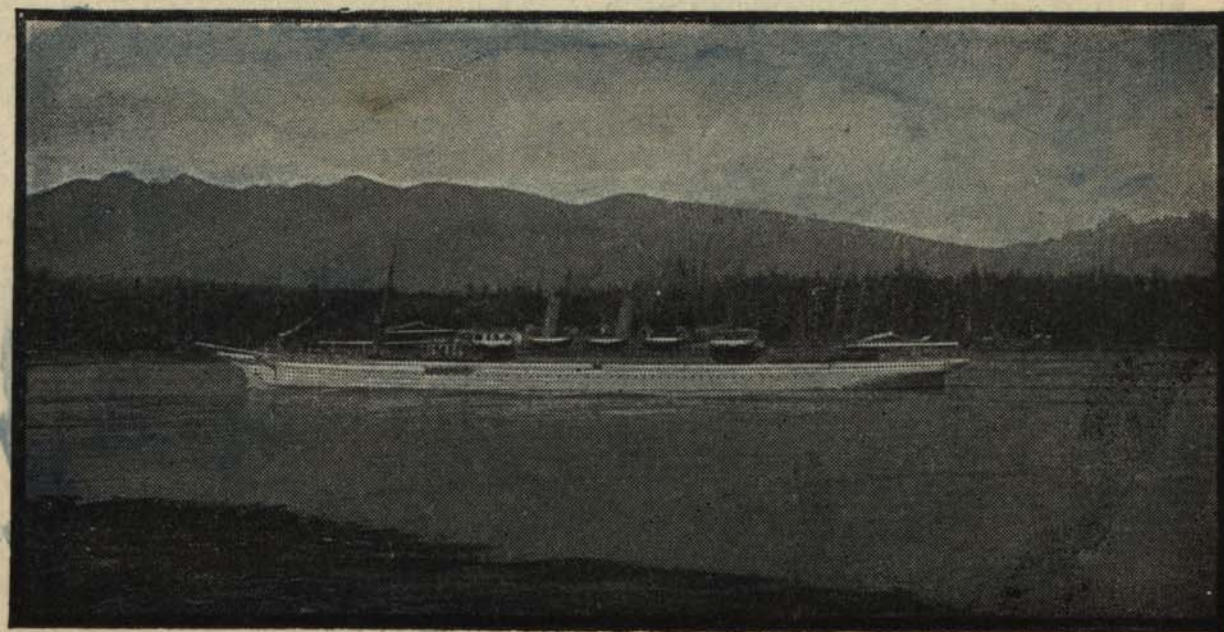
Annual percentage of sunshine at Fredericton, 44 ; at Montreal, 46 ; at Toronto, 44 ; at Winnipeg, 46. In England the percentage ranges between 25 and 36

5. Government.

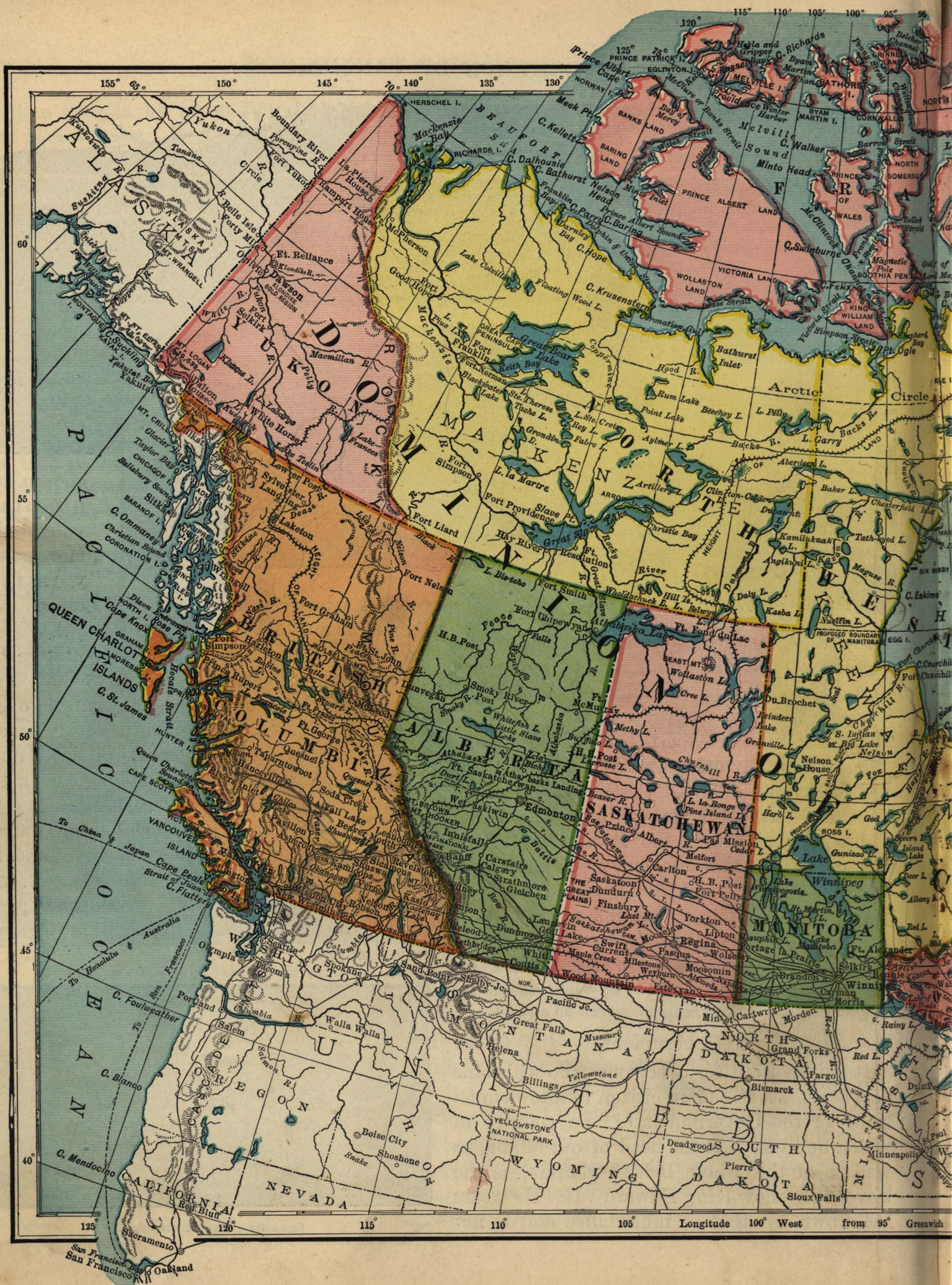
It is important for every one who will some day become a Canadian citizen to know something of the Government of the country in which he lives. At the head of our affairs, as well as of the whole British Empire, is the Sovereign—now King Edward VII. He wears his crown by right of inheritance and is not

ruler of a republic like the United States. As Canada is a colony of Great Britain, the chief executive of Canada is the representative of the British Sovereign. He is called the Governor - General. Imperial control over Canada is limited to the settling of International affairs, disputed cases of law, and matters involving the relation of Canada to other parts of the Empire.

In all matters relating to local affairs Canadians enjoy full powers of self-government, and are not subject to any interference from the Mother Country. In everything pertaining to taxation and expenditure we are independent.



Canadian Pacific Steamer.





Canada is governed on what is known as the Federal System. It is made up of a number of provinces, which have federated, that is, entered into a kind of close partnership for mutual advantage, while retaining their own individual independence in local, provincial affairs.

When the old provinces

—Upper Canada, Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick—decided on

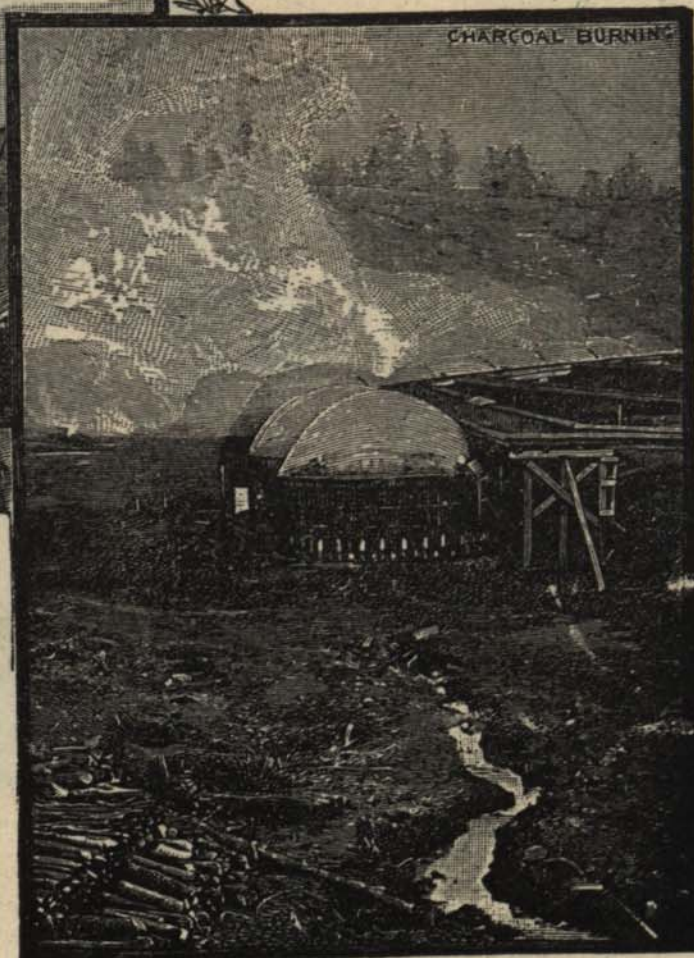
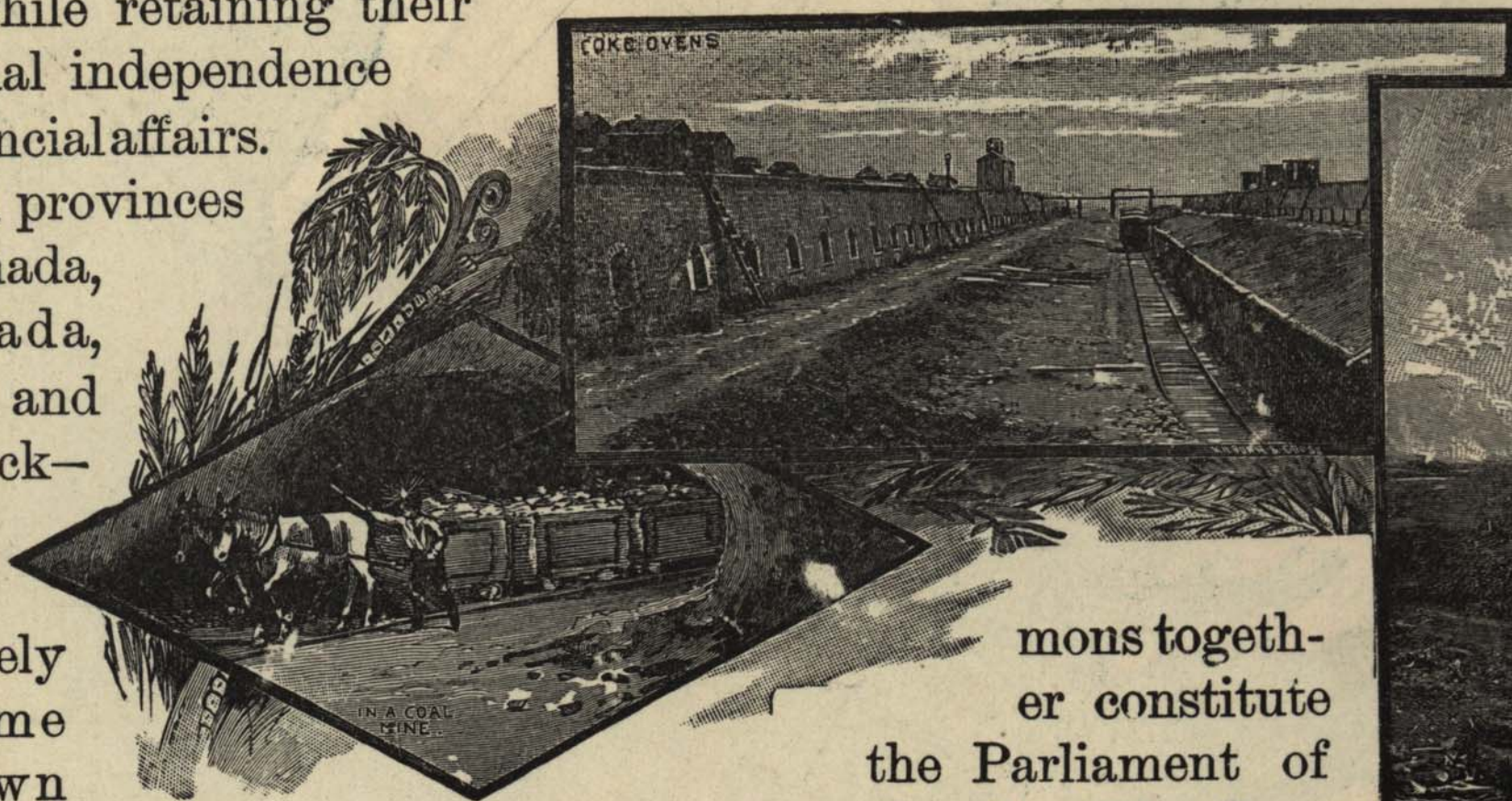
Confederation, they freely gave up some of their own

powers into the hands of a central government in which they were all represented. But they retained other powers in their own hands; so that Canada is in reality governed by a number of what are known as Provincial Governments, dealing with the local affairs of the several provinces, and a central or Dominion Government at Ottawa, which deals with the affairs of the Dominion as a whole.

It is, of course, this

made up of four factors:—(1) The Governor-General, (2) The Executive Council or Cabinet, (3) The Senate, (4) The House of Commons.

The Governor-General, the Senate and the House of Com-



mons together constitute the Parliament of Canada. The Senate is not elected but is made up of members appointed by the Governor-General, acting on the advice of his Cabinet. They hold their positions for life, unless they resign, or in some way become disqualified. Each Senator must be a British subject, must live in the province he represents, and must own property to the value of at least \$4,000.

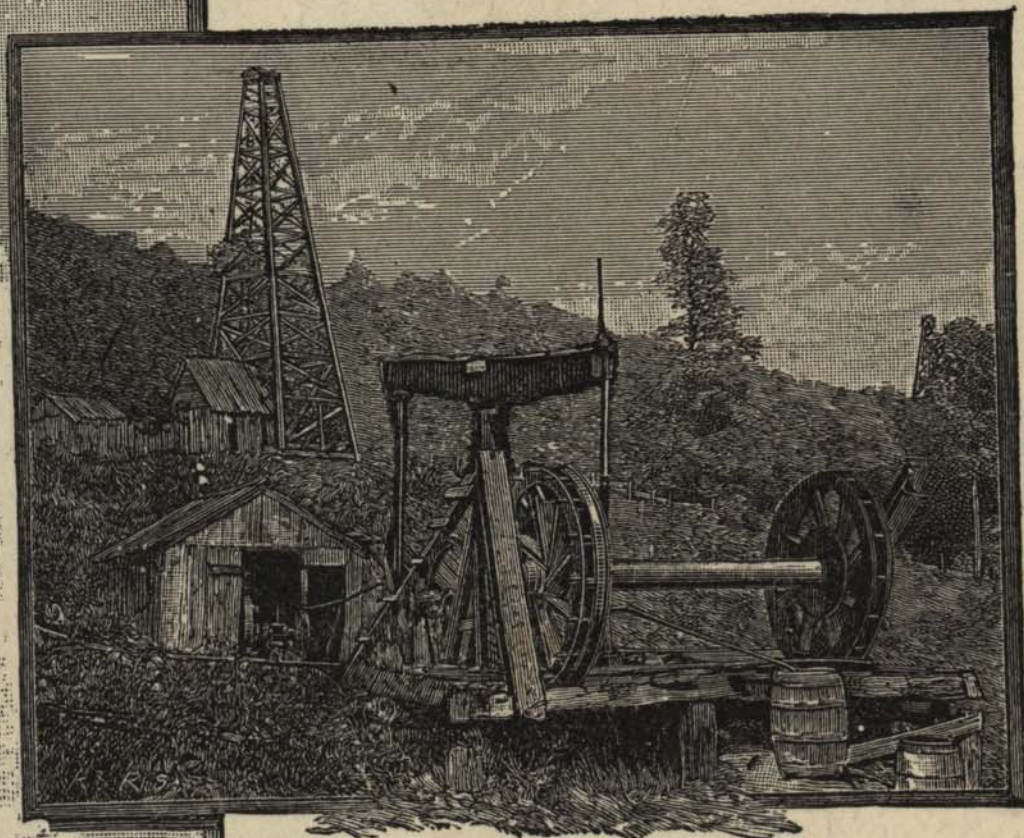
The House of Commons directly represents the people. Its members are elected by the people. They serve for a term of five years, unless the House is dissolved by the Governor-in-Council in the meantime. Each member must be a British subject. The various provinces of the Dominion are represented in proportion to their population. The representation of Quebec is fixed at sixty-five and after each decennial census the representation of the other provinces is changed, if

necessary, so that the number of their members of parliament shall bear the same ratio to their population as sixty-five to the population of Quebec.

The Cabinet, or Executive Council, which has



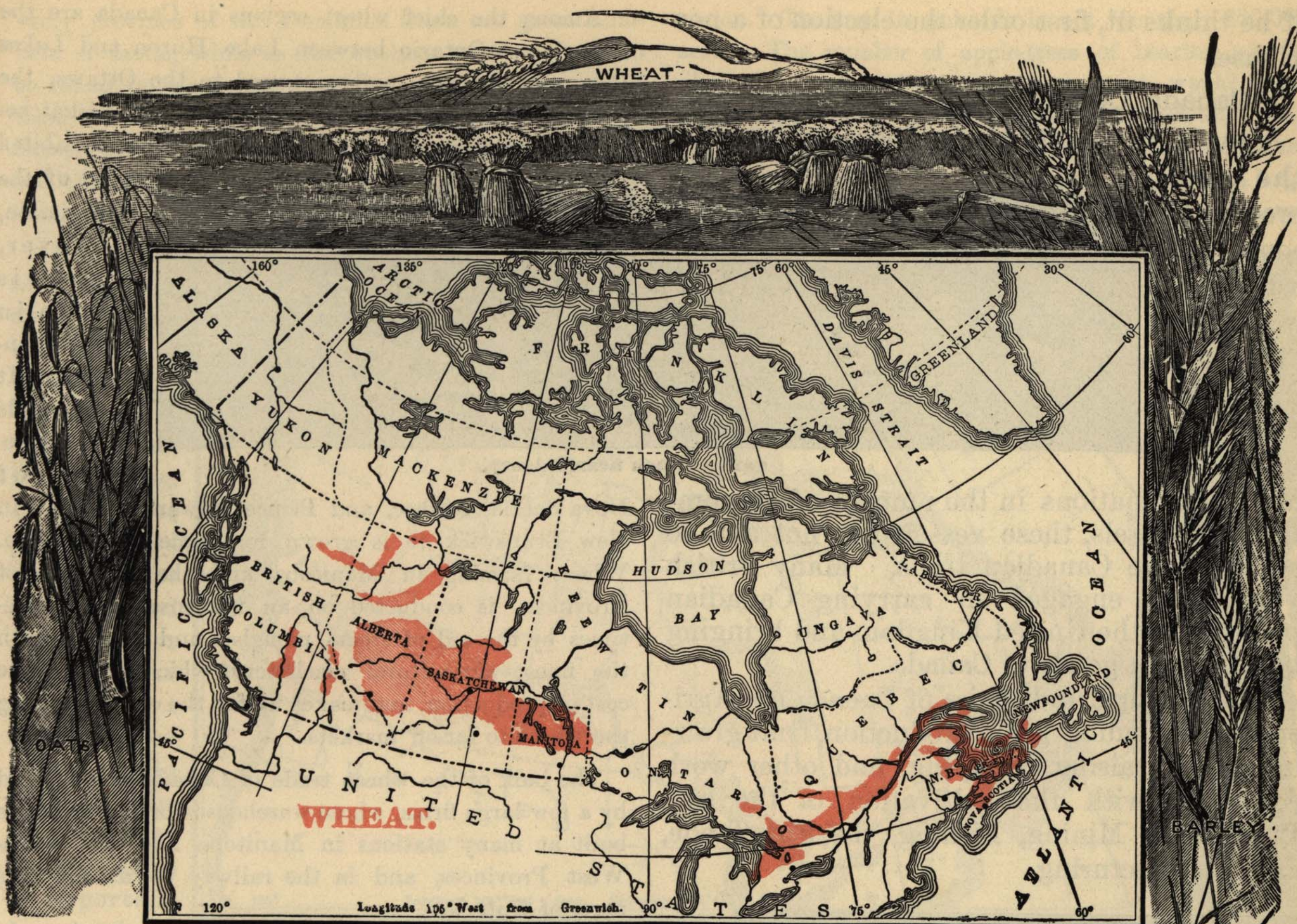
A Shot Well.



Oil Pump.

Dominion Government that is known as the Government of Canada.

The Government is



the actual control of the country in its hands, consists usually of thirteen members. These are the leaders of the party which has the majority in the House of Commons. Most of them are chosen from the House of Commons, and upon appointment, must go back for re-election, that the people may have a chance to say whether they approve of the appointments or not. The other members of the Cabinet are chosen from the Senate. The head of the Cabinet is called the Premier or Prime Minister, and he is for the time practically the ruler of Canada. He is the leader of his party in Parliament, and almost always is a member of the House of Commons. He may, however, be a member of the Senate instead; just as the Prime Minister of Great Britain may belong either to the House of Lords or the House of Commons. The members of the Cabinet are

the heads of the departments of public service, and are known as the Ministers of Justice, Public Works, Finance, Militia and Defence, Railways and Canals, Agriculture, Trade and Commerce, Marine and Fisheries, Interior, Customs, Inland Revenue, the Secretary of State, and the Postmaster - General. Sometimes the Premier holds no other office than that of President of the Council. In addition to the members named, there are sometimes members of the Government without portfolios.

When a government no longer commands the confidence of a majority of the House of Commons, it goes out of power, and a new government is formed from the members of the opposing party. The Governor-General may,

if he thinks fit, first order the election of a new House.

6. Canada Commercially and Industrially.

Canada is rapidly taking its place as one of the great producing countries of the world. Although Canada ranks ninth

among the nations in the number of its commercial vessels, these vessels are not able to carry all the Canadian trade. Many British vessels are engaged in carrying Canadian products to the United Kingdom and bringing back foreign goods to Canada.

The principal industries of Canada are Agriculture, including grain production, fruit growing, stock raising, dairying, and other work connected with the cultivation of the soil, Lumbering, Mining, Fishing, the Fur Trade, and Manufacturing.

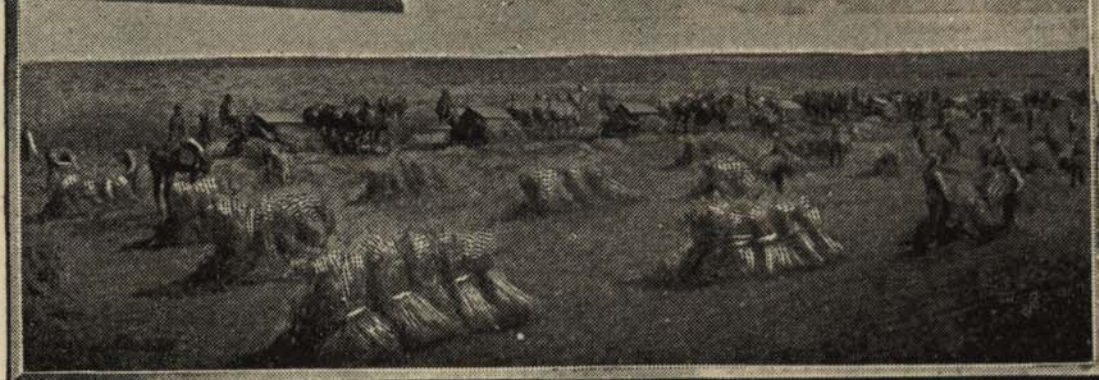


Thrashing in Manitoba.

7. Agriculture.

Agriculture holds the first place among Canadian industries

Grain-growing is the chief department of agricultural work. All the most useful grains can be grown in Canada, but certain parts of our country are especially suited to the growth of wheat. The wheat of Manitoba and the North-West takes a leading place in the British market. Wheat grown at Fort Chipewyan, in latitude 58, took a prize at the Centennial Exhibition.



Harvesting in Manitoba.

Among the chief wheat regions in Canada are the following:—Ontario between Lake Huron and Lakes Erie and Ontario, and eastward to the Ottawa, the Province of Manitoba, and the Provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta. In almost every other inhabited

part of the Dominion, however, wheat is grown in large quantities. It is a staple farm product of

Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Prince Edward Island. In New Brunswick it is grown for home consumption. Wheat farming in Manitoba and the North-West Provinces is conducted on an immense scale, sometimes by the aid of steam ploughs, and usually with the finest agricultural machinery, which reduces the cost of production, and makes up for the cost of getting the wheat to far-off markets.

The bulk of the wheat trade of Canada is conducted by a few large firms, whose warehouses or elevators are built at many stations in Manitoba and the North-West Provinces, and in the railway towns and lake ports of Ontario.

Wheat-flour milling is an important Canadian industry, and the product finds a ready market not only throughout the Dominion, but in Great Britain, China, Japan and Australia.

Stock and Dairy Products.—Cattle are not native to any part of America, but they now thrive in almost every part of Canada where there is good grass land. In



Cattle Ranch near Calgary.



Plowing in Manitoba.

every province of the Dominion there are great numbers of cattle, while in the western territories are to be found immense cattle ranches, where thousands of them are owned by one "rancher," as the big cattle farmers are called. Every year great numbers of these cattle are sent to eastern cities, or exported to supply the markets of Great Britain and other countries.

Horses, sheep, and pigs are among the leading products of Canada, and the exports of these are yearly increasing. Owing to the care exercised by our farmers in breeding and fattening their hogs, Canadian bacon has a high reputation all the world over. The shipping of poultry and eggs forms an important branch of our agricultural industries.

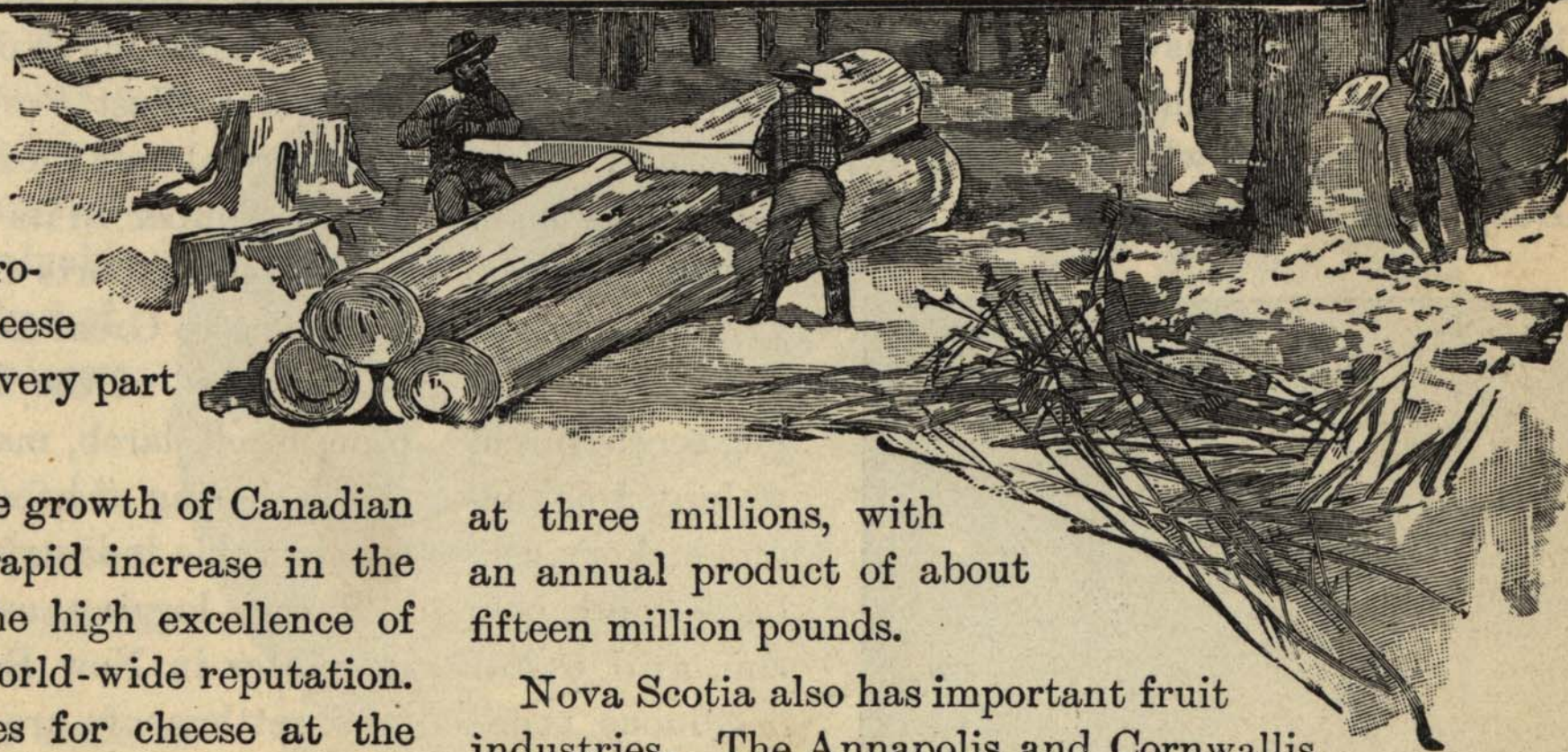
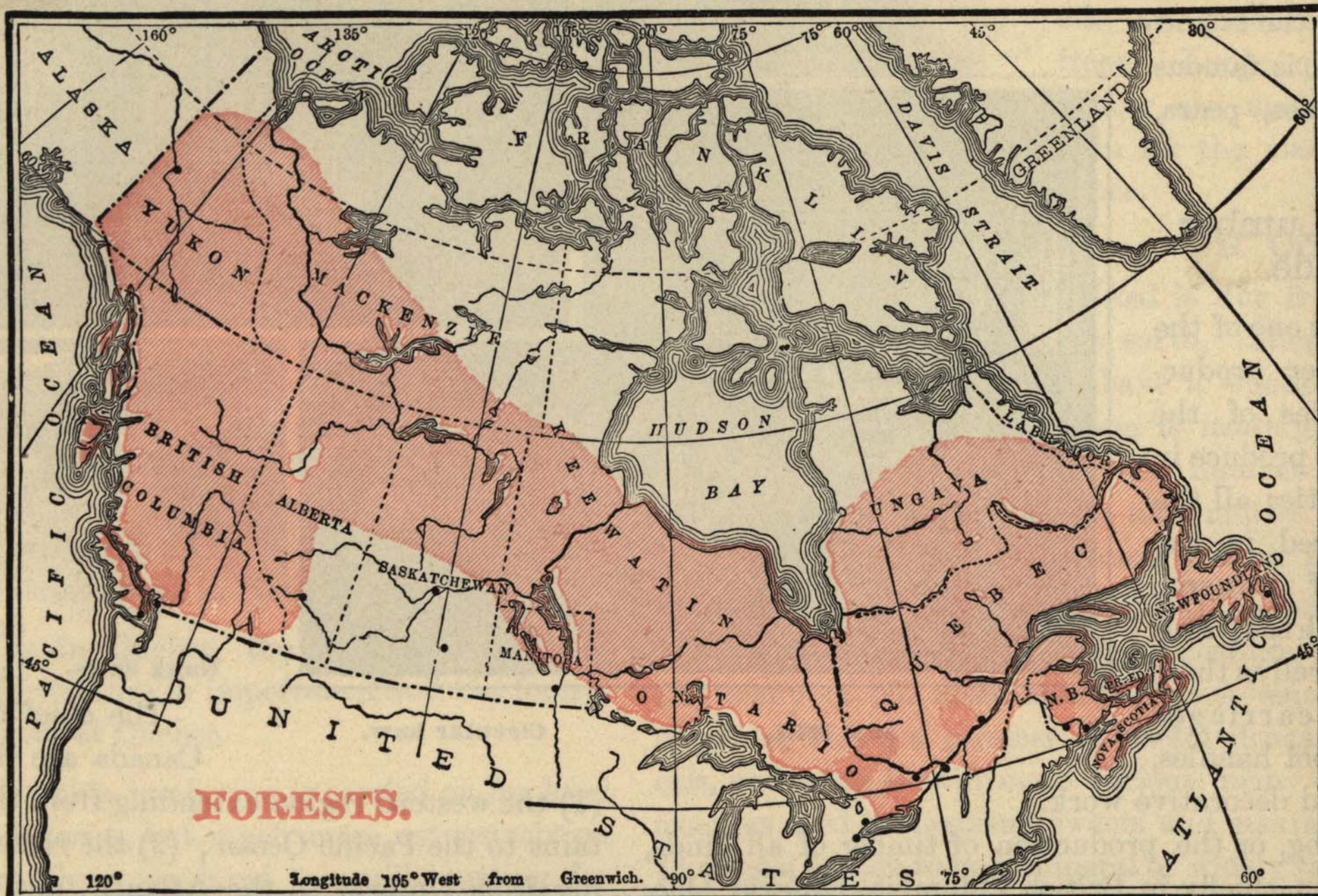
Butter, cheese, and milk are known as dairy products. Ontario ranks first among dairy provinces; but milk, butter and cheese are valuable products in almost every part of the Dominion.

Nothing shows more clearly the growth of Canadian trade in recent years than the rapid increase in the exports of butter and cheese. The high excellence of Canadian cheese is winning it a world-wide reputation. Canada took nearly all the prizes for cheese at the World's Fair in Chicago, 1893.

Fruit-Growing.—Small fruits are grown in abundance in nearly every province in Canada. Though the winter in some parts is too severe for the successful growth of the larger kinds, yet the fruit industry, as a whole, has become an important department of agriculture.

The Province of Ontario is an excellent fruit-growing

region. The area in orchards is not less than 320,000 acres. The number of apple-trees of bearing age, if planted in a row twenty-five feet apart, would reach around the world. In the Niagara peninsula, and along the shores of the western part of Lake Erie, peaches are grown very successfully. Grapes are also grown in large quantities, the number of bearing vines being estimated



at three millions, with an annual product of about fifteen million pounds.

Nova Scotia also has important fruit industries. The Annapolis and Cornwallis valleys are especially adapted by climate and situation for the growth of large fruits. Here the choicest varieties of apples, pears, plums, and cherries are produced in abundance.

In 1904 Canada exported 1,573,744 barrels of apples, valued at \$4,379,826, to Great Britain. These were chiefly grown in Ontario and Nova Scotia. The export of canned fruits is rapidly becoming an important industry

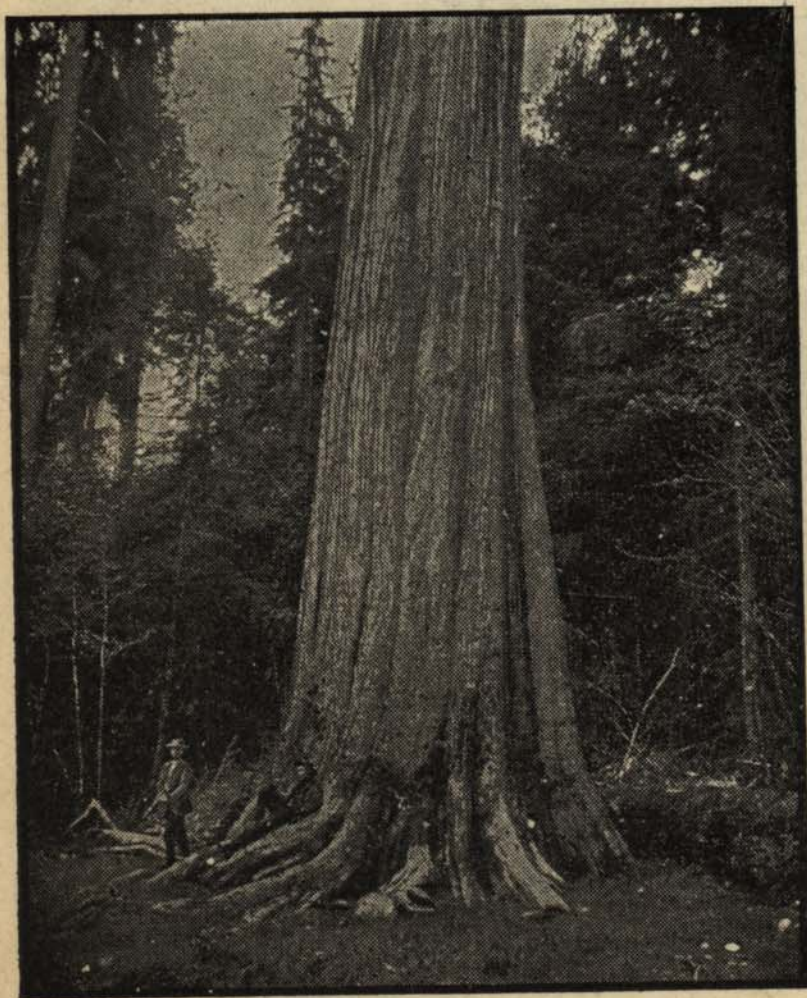
None of the other provinces compete with Ontario and Nova Scotia in the fruit trade. New Brunswick, however, produces excellent small fruits. British Columbia grows good fruits, and will doubtless become a fruit exporter, and the Island of Montreal is famous for its apples, pears, and plums.

8. The Lumber Trade.

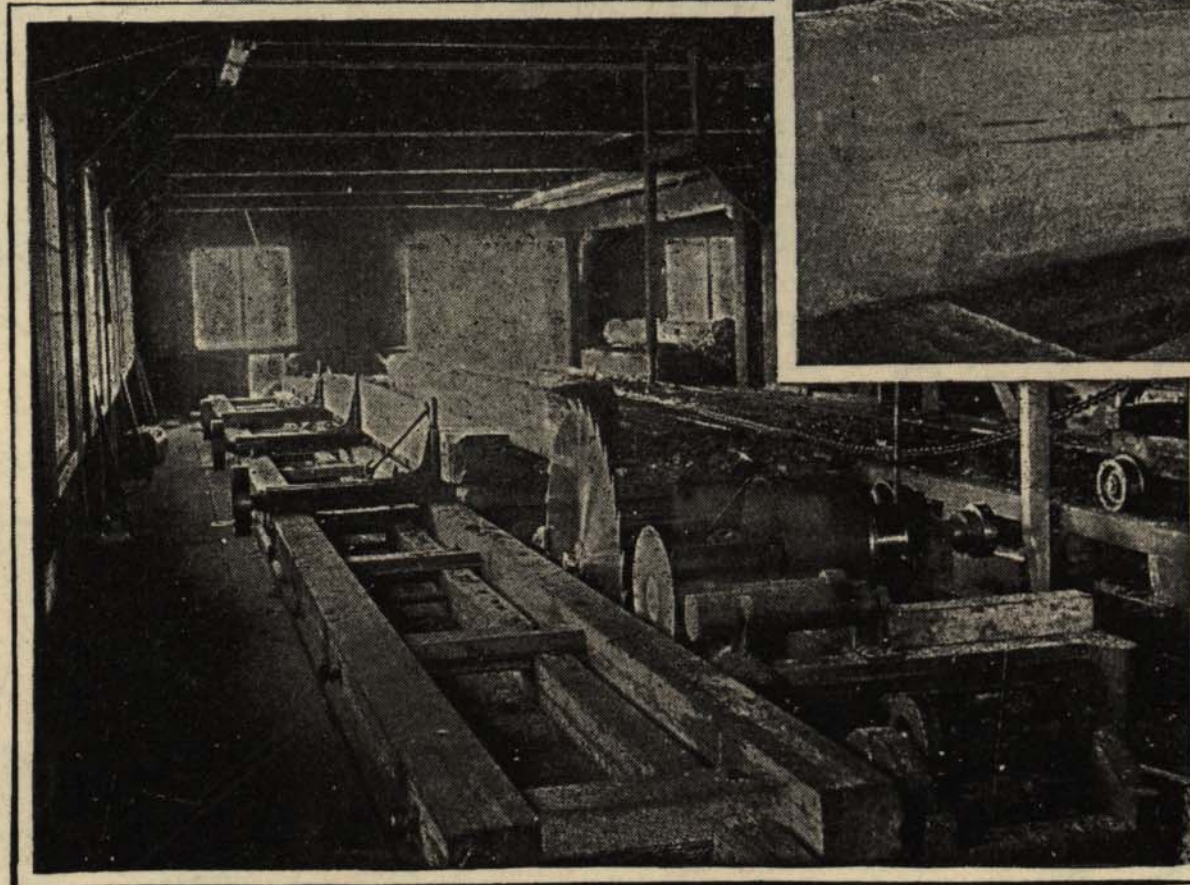
Canada is one of the chief lumber producing countries of the world. We produce in vast quantities all the varieties used in the building of houses, railroads, ships, and bridges, as well as those needed for carriage-building, tool handles, carving, and decorative work.

Lumbering, or the production of timber of all kinds, is carried on chiefly in British Columbia, Ontario, Quebec, and New Brunswick. In Nova Scotia also it is an industry of some importance. The coniferous or cone-bearing trees, of which the white pine, spruce, larch, Douglas fir, cedar and hemlock, may be specially mentioned,

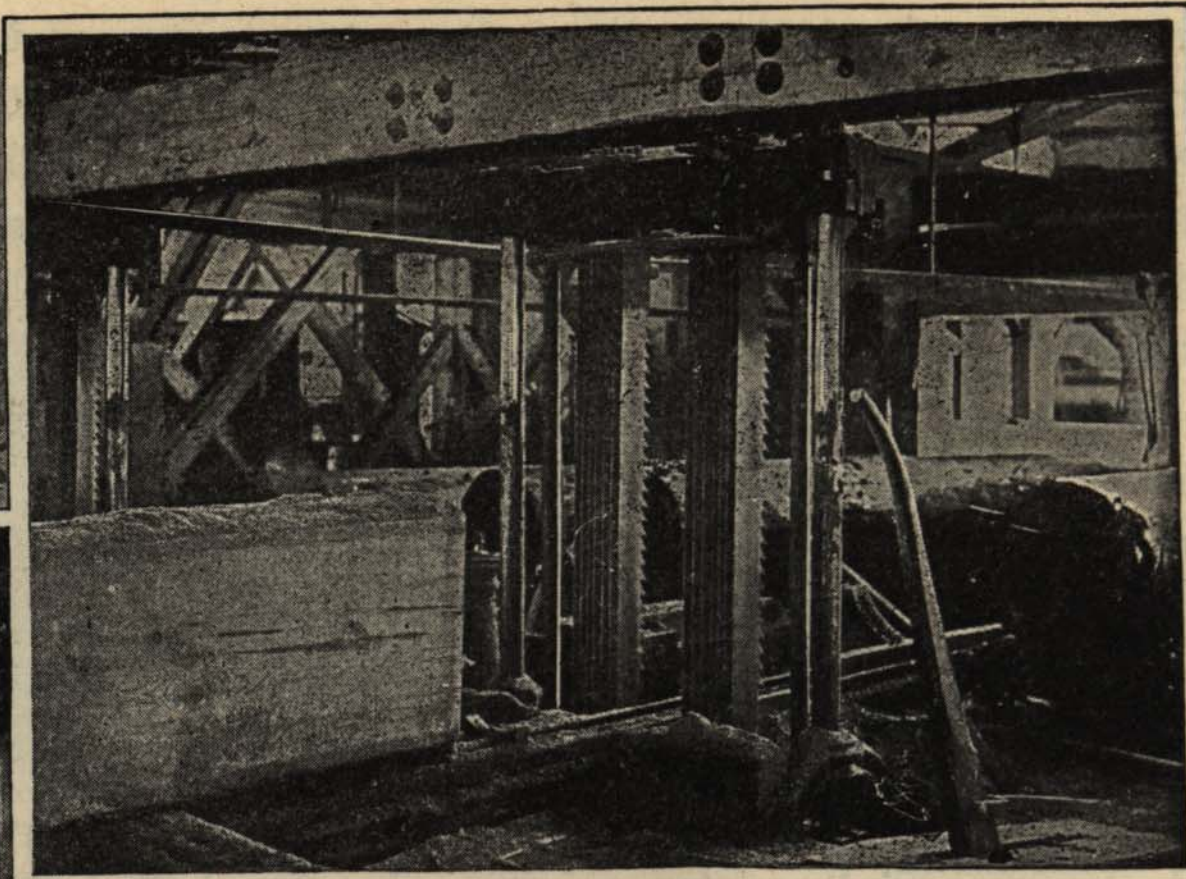
yield the greater part of the timber. Maple, beech, birch, walnut, butternut, hickory, ash, basswood, oak, elm, and other deciduous trees add their share. A large proportion of all the timber cut is exported as logs, or in some partially manufactured form, such as squared timber,



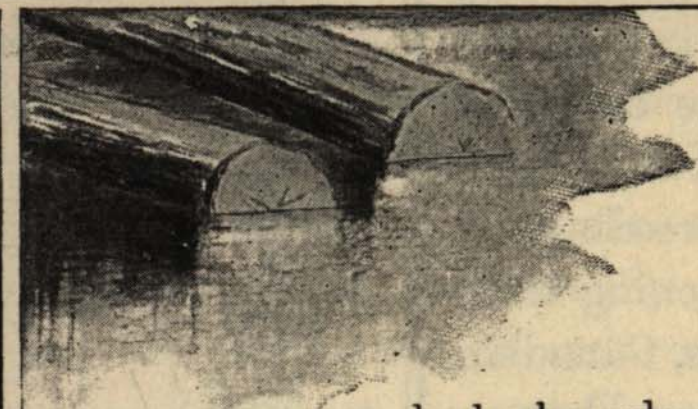
Giant Cedar, B.C.



Saw Mill.



Circular Saw.



deals, boards, and
Gang Saws. laths.

The chief forest regions of Canada are three in number :

(1) the western region extending from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean ; (2) the eastern region reaching from Ontario to the Atlantic, and (3) a sub-arctic tract situated north of the prairie lands of Manitoba and the North-West Provinces. The forests of these districts are almost inexhaustible, under judicious forestry laws. Timber in its various forms makes up the greater part of the exports of New Brunswick, most of the output going to Great Britain. Spruce is the most important product of the New Brunswick forests, but white pine, birch, larch, maple, and cedar are abundant, and the gathering of hemlock bark for tanning purposes is a considerable industry.

Spruce logging, as it is called, is carried on chiefly in winter in New Brunswick. The inhabitants of the back settlements are occupied with farming in the summer, but in winter they go to the woods. Through December, January, February, and March their axes are busy felling the spruce trees, and cutting them into logs, which their teams of horses drag to the banks of the nearest streams. In spring, when the melting snows turn these streams into torrents, the logs are carried down to the saw mills about the mouths of the chief rivers.

In Quebec the lumber trade stands next to agricul-



Lumber Camp.

ture in importance. White and red pine, chiefly obtained on the tributaries of the Ottawa, are the most important woods, followed by spruce, larch, cedar, birch, maple and other woods. The lumbering operations are carried on as in New Brunswick.

In Ontario, as in Quebec, the lumbering industry stands next to agriculture in importance, and the forests are similar to those of Quebec.

In British Columbia lumbering is carried on for local purposes in the interior, but much more extensively on the coast, where there are large saw-mills cutting for export. The most important tree is the Douglas fir, which frequently attains a height of from two to three hundred feet, with a diameter of from eight to ten feet. The western cedar is another valuable timber tree of British Columbia. Most of the lumber is exported to various places on the coast of the Pacific Ocean.

In cutting these huge trees of the Pacific Coast, the axe of the Eastern lumber woods proves insufficient, and the great cross-cut saw largely takes its place.

The export lumber and timber trade of Canada is about equally divided between shipments to Great Britain and the United States. The figures for the year ending June 30th, 1904, are :—

Exports to Great Britain\$15,787,385
Exports to United States.....\$14,945,793

A considerable part of the lumber reported as shipped to the United States is really sent

through the United States to the countries of South America.

The Canadian forests yield many other trees of commercial importance. A valuable tanning substance is obtained from hemlock oak and other trees; and tar and resin, turpentine and other oils, are produced from pine trees. Large quantities of timber are made into wood pulp for the manufacture of paper.

9. Coal.

Coal is dug from layers in the earth. These are called seams and have a wonderful history. Each of them is made up of the remains of a vast number of plants—chiefly ferns and mosses. Coal beds are from a few inches to several feet in thickness.

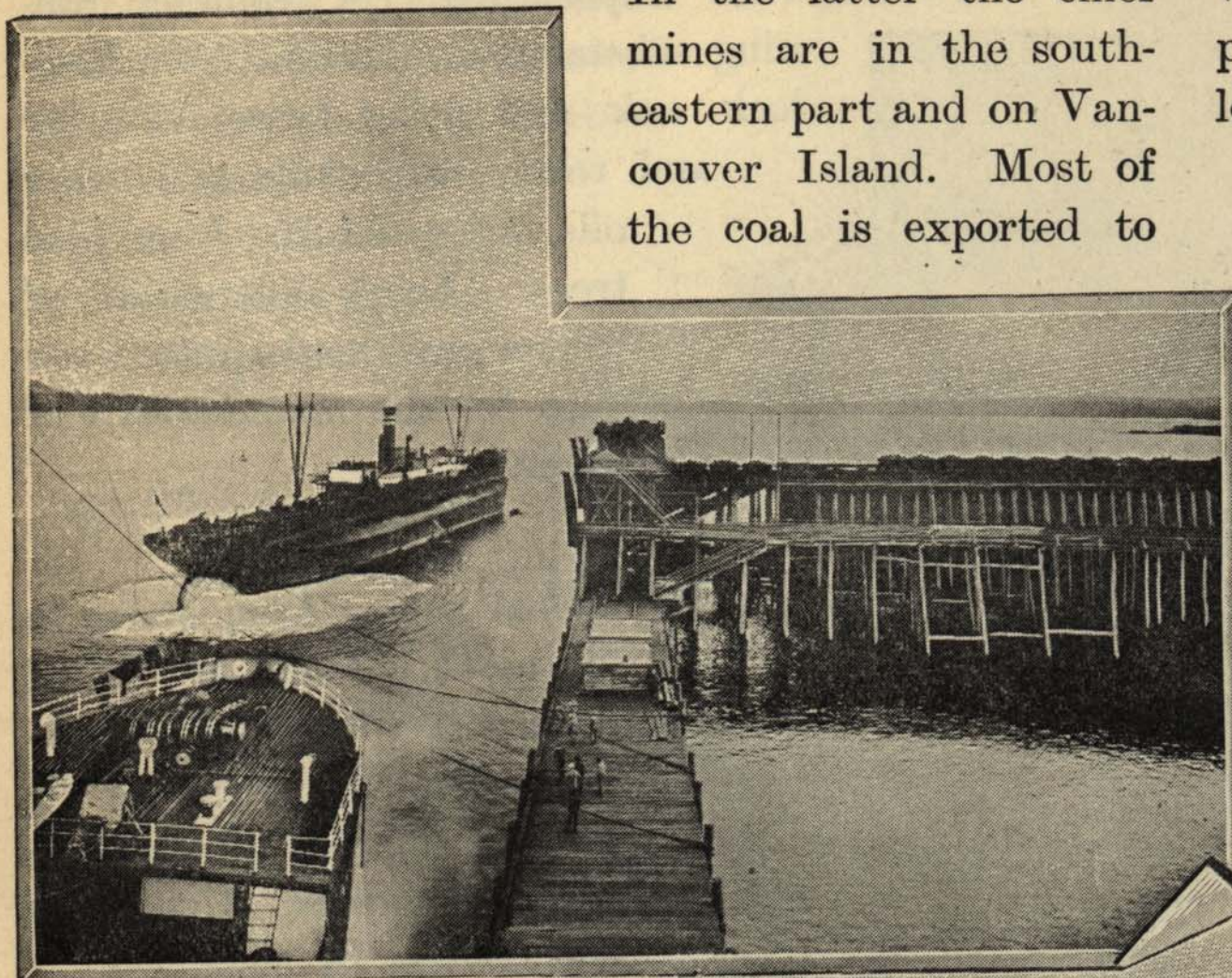
Coal is used chiefly for fuel. It has several other uses, however. From coal we get coal-tar, paraffine oil, and many of our most beautiful dyes—such as mauve, magenta, violet, a number of useful drugs and chemicals, and what is still more curious, many of the finest essences used in flavoring sweets and making perfumes. Thus coal is seen to be a mineral of widely varied utility.



Coal Breaker.

In Canada there are numerous coal-fields, some of them of very great importance. The most productive mines are found in Nova Scotia and British Columbia.

In the latter the chief mines are in the south-eastern part and on Vancouver Island. Most of the coal is exported to



Loading Coal at Nanaimo.

California. In Nova Scotia the principal coal-fields are those of Pictou and Cumberland counties and the eastern part of Cape Breton. The coal from these mines is shipped to the neighboring parts of the Dominion, and also to the New England States. In New Brunswick the coal seams are thin, and are worked only on a small scale for local purposes.

Quebec is at a disadvantage in containing no coal-fields, the coal required for manufacturing purposes being brought chiefly from Nova Scotia. The absence of coal-fields in Ontario is compensated to some extent by the existence of petroleum, which is obtained in large quantities in the south-western part of the Province.

The coal area of the North-West Provinces is extensive, though the mines are as yet but little worked. Much of the North-West coal is of an inferior quality called lignite, which is useful for local purposes, but does not bear transportation well.

When hard coal or anthracite is taken from the mines much of it is in large lumps. These could not well be used in that shape,

so they are crushed between heavy steel rollers in great buildings constructed for the purpose. Such a building is called a breaker. In the illustration on page 79 you will notice a number of boys seated at work. They are picking pieces of slate from the coal as it slides down a long trough or chute from the rollers.

10. Gold.

Gold and silver are called precious metals. Gold is one of the most valuable minerals found in the world, and the search for it has always called forth the spirit of adventure. It is found in a pure state, either distributed in veins of quartz rock, or in gravel beds formed by the action of water in slowly

wearing down the quartz. It is also found united with other metals.

When gold is found in veins, the quartz is crushed by heavy machinery called stamping mills, and the gold separated by a chemical process. When it is found in riverbeds, it is usually in the form of gold dust, and is separated from the sand and



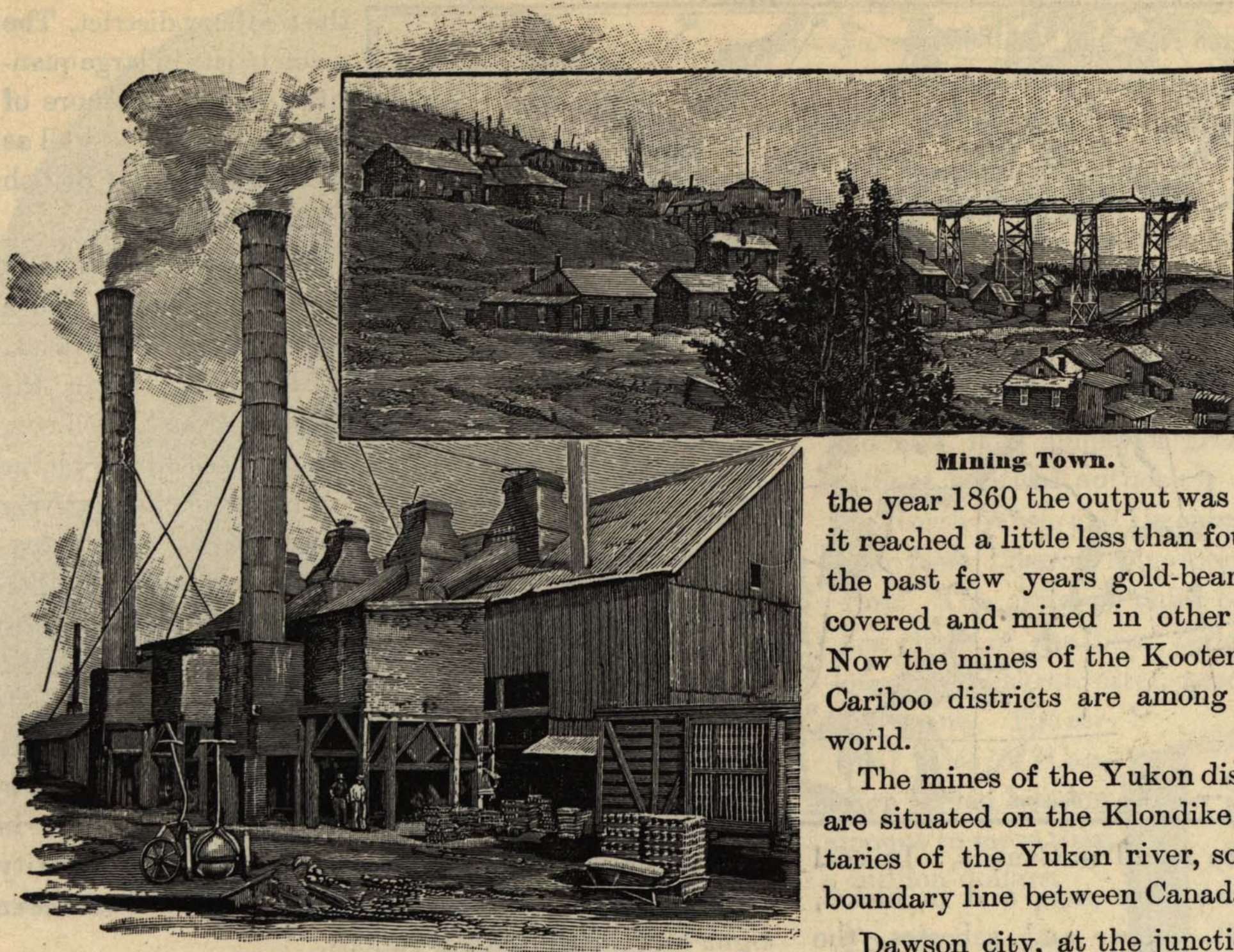
No. 1 Shaft, Nanaimo Colliery.

gravel by washing. The latter method is called "placer" mining.

In Canada there are numerous gold-fields. The most important of these are found in Nova Scotia, Ontario,



Hydraulic Mining.

**A Smeltery.**

and British Columbia. The most valuable district of all, commonly known as the Klondike, has been recently discovered in the Yukon district even within the Arctic circle.

In Nova Scotia the gold mines are in a bed of old slaty or quartzite rocks, situated on the Atlantic slope of the peninsula—the gold being obtained from quartz which has to be mined and crushed. In this province the annual product since 1861 has averaged about \$390,000; and the whole amount of gold produced up to 1904 is nearly \$17,000,000.

What gold there is in Quebec is found on the Chaudiere river and its tributaries. But comparatively little work has been done on these mines—the whole product amounting since 1862 to about \$300,000.

Gold was first found in Ontario about 1866, but up to 1896 the mines were little worked. The chief gold region is a strip of land about two hundred and fifty miles long, and about half as broad, lying to the west and north-west of Lake Superior. Gold has also been found in Hastings

county. In 1895 the output in Ontario was valued at \$62,000. In 1903 it was over \$188,000.

Gold mining on an extensive scale began in British Columbia in 1857. For a long time the chief source of gold was the Fraser river and its tributaries. In

Mining Town.

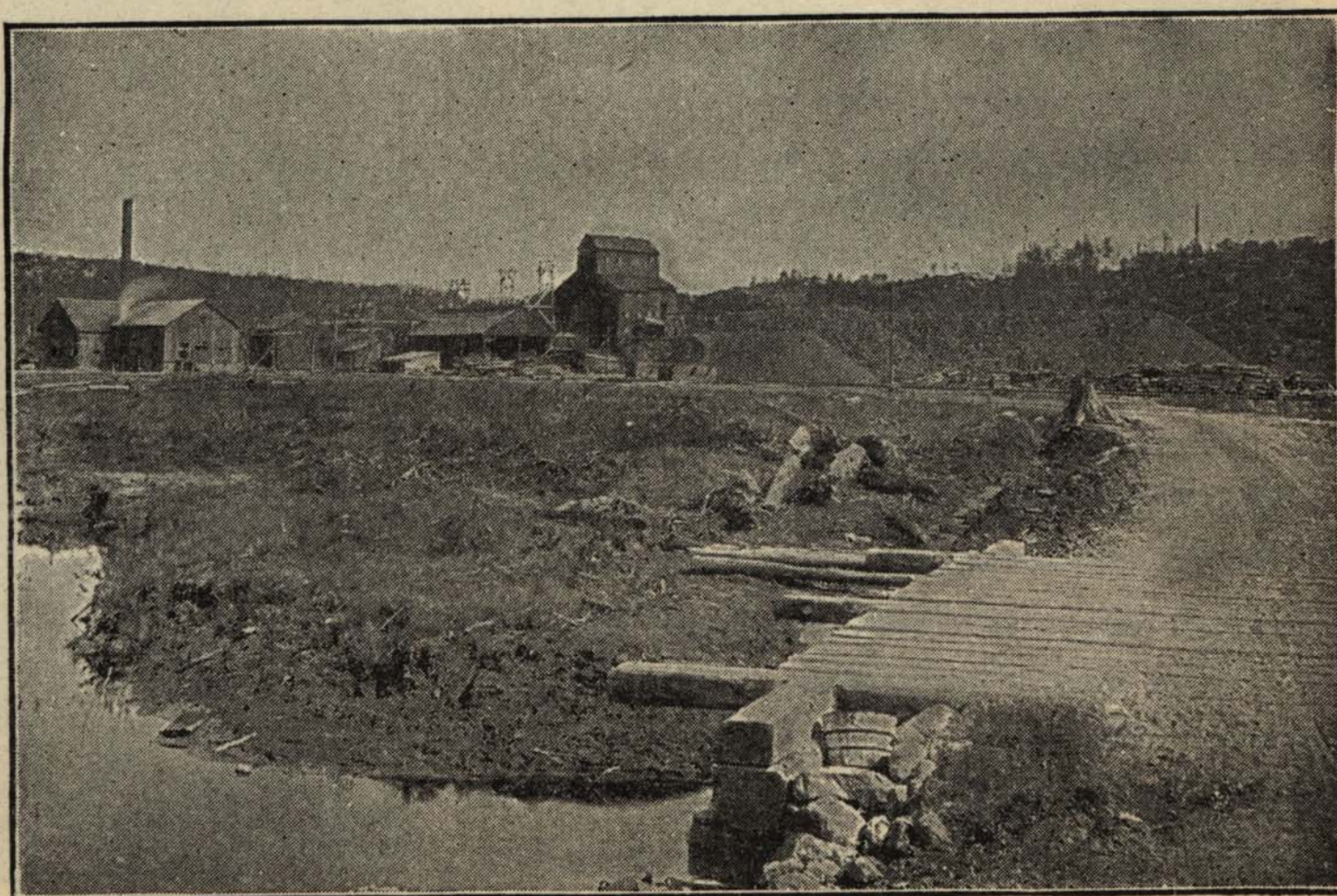
the year 1860 the output was over \$2,000,000. In 1863 it reached a little less than four million dollars. Within the past few years gold-bearing quartz has been discovered and mined in other sections of the province. Now the mines of the Kootenay, Boundary Creek and Cariboo districts are among the most valuable in the world.

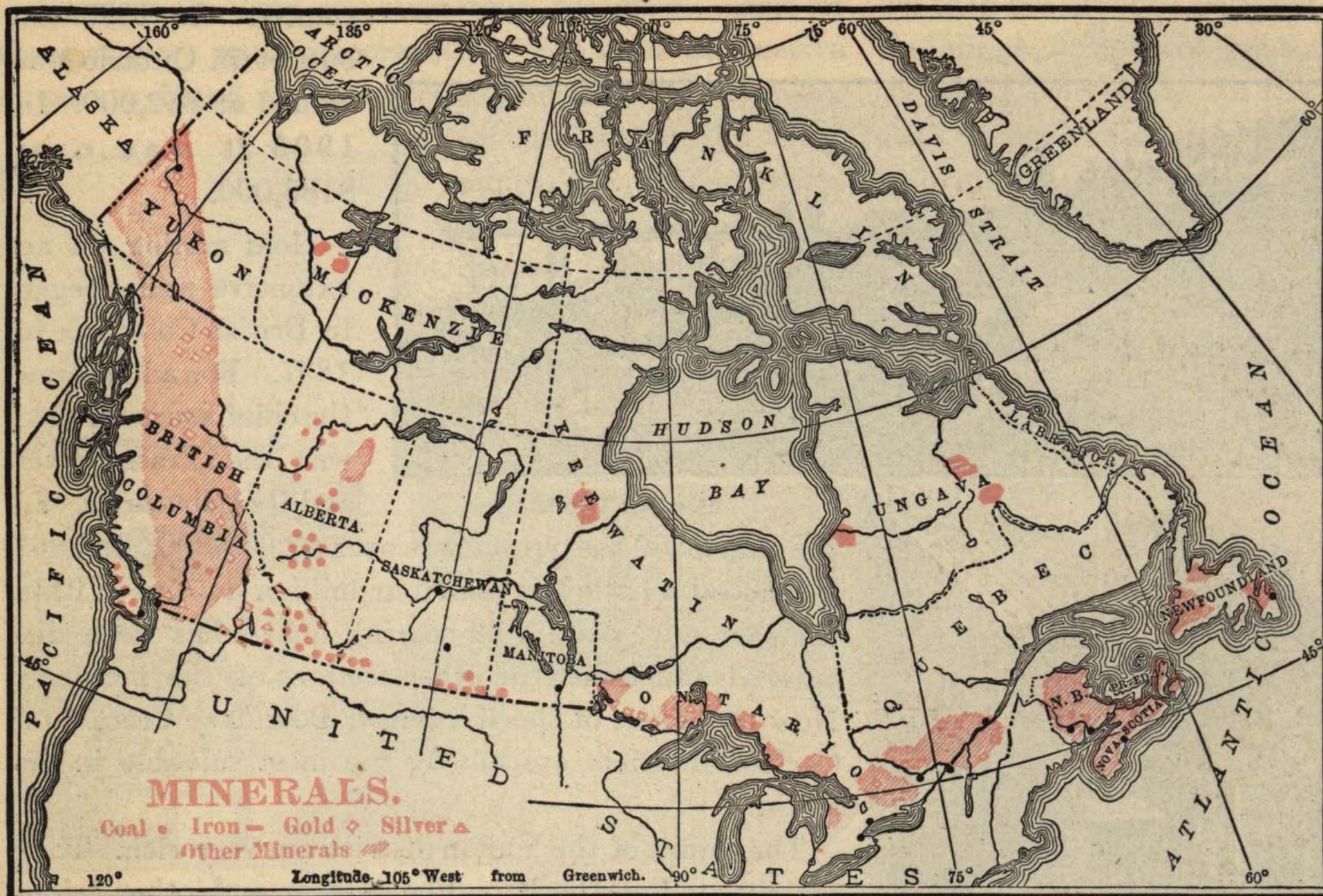
The mines of the Yukon district are very rich. They are situated on the Klondike stream and other tributaries of the Yukon river, some distance east of the boundary line between Canada and Alaska.

Dawson city, at the junction of the Klondike river with the Yukon, is the centre of the Yukon gold region. It has grown rapidly, and is a prosperous mining town. The climate is somewhat severe in winter, but warm in summer.

11. Other Minerals.

The mineral productions of Canada are of so varied a character that it is impossible to deal with each one separately. Nearly all the minerals of value, and

**Nickel Mines, Sudbury, Ont.**



utility in manufactures, are found in Canada. In coal, gold, silver and lead, as we have seen, and in nickel, iron, lime, petroleum, salt, copper and asbestos, the resources of Canada are all but inexhaustible. There are also deposits of platinum, manganese, phosphates, gypsum, antimony and plumbago, and of almost all the other important minerals.

Silver is found chiefly in the Provinces of Ontario and British Columbia. In Ontario the richest silver district is along the shore of Lake Superior. In British Columbia the Slocan district of West Kootenay has recently come into great prominence as a producer of silver and lead.

Nickel is found in the province of Ontario in the vicinity of Sudbury, Algoma district, in larger quantities than in any other part of the world. With the growing use of this metal in combination with steel as a protective armor for battle-ships, the Canadian mines must become very valuable. Canada can supply all the nickel used in the world.

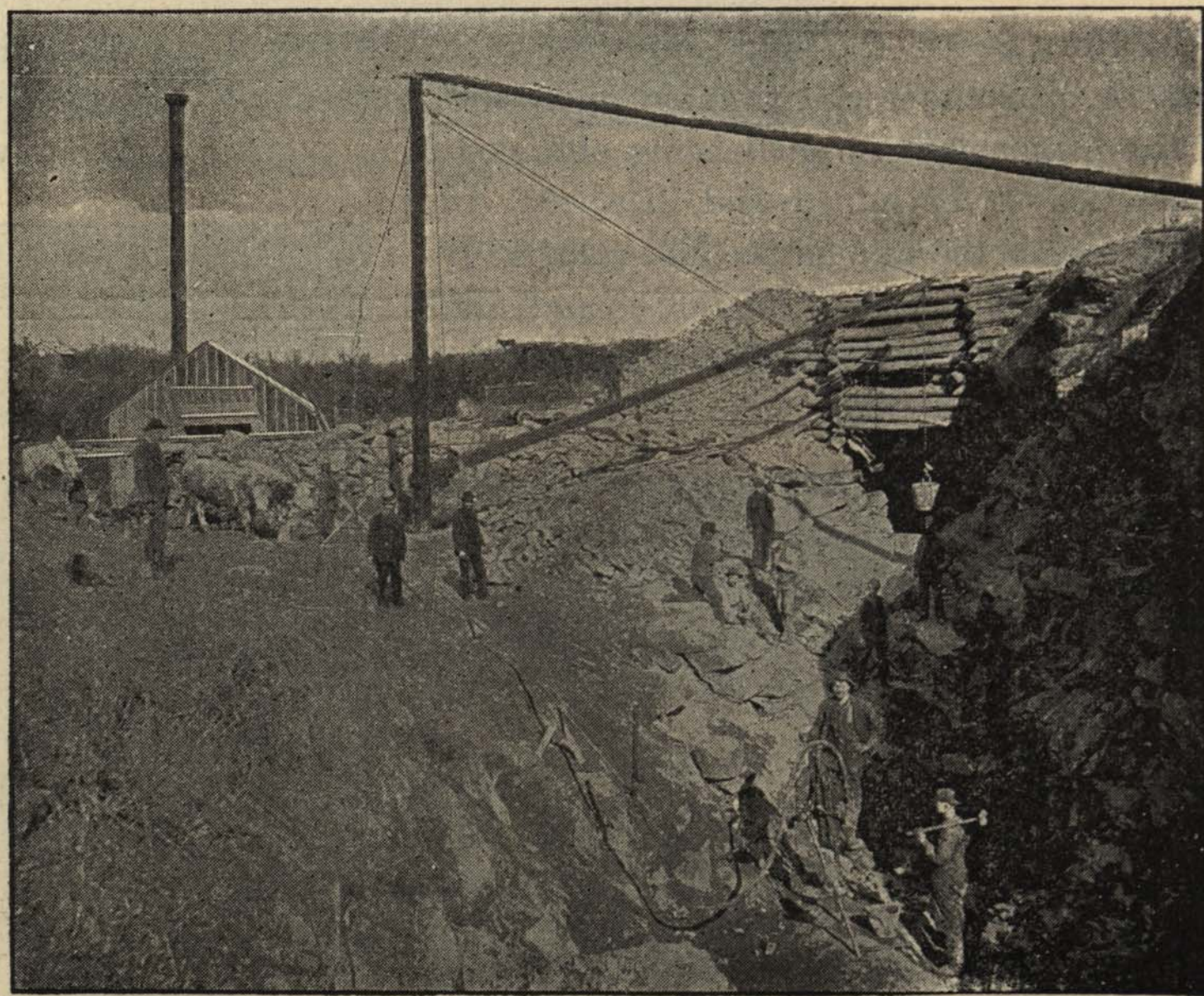
Copper occurs in Canada in two forms, as the native metal, and in combination with sulphur. The latter variety, called copper pyrites, is found in many places. Of the former, the richest veins are found along the north-eastern shore of Lake Huron, in

the Sudbury district. The metal exists in large quantities along the shore of Lake Superior, as well as in various parts of British Columbia.

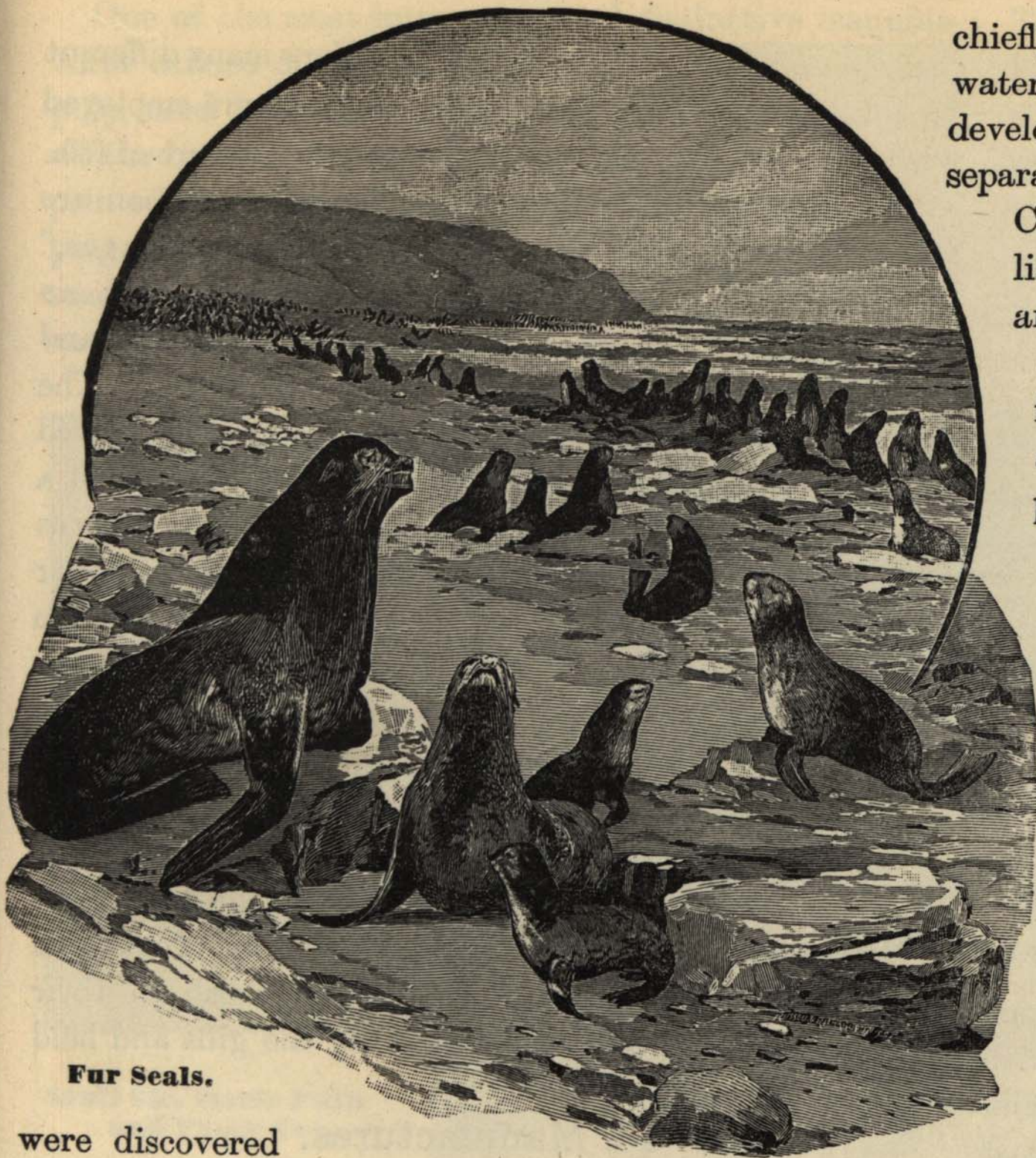
Petroleum is found in Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and especially in the North-West Provinces, where there are very large oil regions comparatively unexplored. In the Arctic wilderness of the Mackenzie Basin there are vast petroleum fields. The best known oil wells in Canada are in the county of Lambton, Ontario. The oil wells in

Lambton are from 350 to 500 feet deep. The quantity of refined oil produced in Canada in 1903 was about eight and a half million gallons.

The chief iron mines are in Nova Scotia, at Londonderry and Torbrook. There are large quantities of iron in Ontario in Hastings, Haliburton and Victoria counties. In Quebec the iron mines of Three Rivers



Phosphate and Mica Mining, Silver Lake, Ont.



Fur Seals.

were discovered and worked when New France was an infant colony.

There are rich and valuable deposits of antimony in New Brunswick, and the gypsum industry of Nova Scotia is of well-established importance.

12. The Fur Trade.

The fur trade has always occupied a prominent place in Canadian history. In the early days of French rule in Canada the business was of great importance, and directly or indirectly furnished occupation to nearly all the inhabitants of New France. Much of the exploration of the country was done by the adventurous and hardy fur-traders; and to them

purpose. They were compelled to seek for raw materials, such as straw, the bark of the spruce, and wood-pulp. Of these, wood-pulp is the most important. It is used, is wood-pulp. In the north-western part of Ontario, in Quebec, and in the Provinces there are vast quantities of spruce-forest. This wood makes excellent material for the manufacture of paper. Most of the paper used in the United Kingdom is made of the spruce-tree. Paper is of two varieties. One is called the "ground-pulp," and is obtained by boiling up the spruce logs in water to a pulpy mass, and afterwards pressing this mass till it is dry and conveniently for shipment to the paper mill. The other variety is called the "chemical pulp."

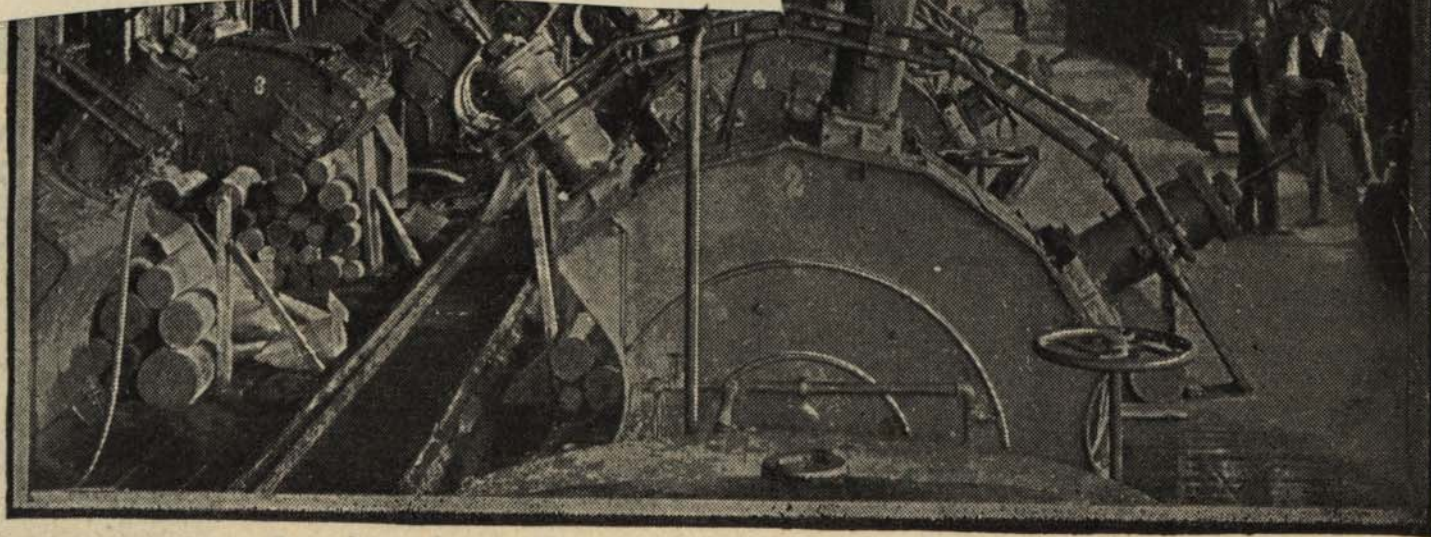
chiefly belongs the honor of opening up those great inland waterways, which have had so much to do with the later development of Canada. In Canada the fur trade is inseparably associated with the history of the Hudson's Bay Company. This great Company had its forts established all over the North-West up to the Arctic Circle, and on the Pacific coast as well as in the Eastern centres of population. For nearly two hundred years it practically ruled the north-western part of Canada. Soon after Confederation its lands and special powers were purchased by the Canadian Government, and now it is simply a great trading corporation without political authority. It still holds posts in the North-West, and its ships come over every summer from London to gather the year's harvest of furs. The skins of chief commercial importance are those of the bear, badger, beaver, fox, mink, marten, muskrat, otter, raccoon, rabbit, wolf, and wolverine. The annual sales of Canadian furs in London amount to more than a million dollars.

13. Fisheries.

Of the world's great fisheries, those of Canada are the greatest and the most varied. The salt waters on the Pacific and Atlantic coasts, the vast and

Norway. It supplies over sixty per cent. of the amount shipped into the United Kingdom.

Besides its use in the manufacture of paper, wood-pulp is capable



Grinder Room.

of being employed for a great variety of purposes. Already it is manufactured into pails, tubs, barrels, doors and sashes, and it is thought that before long it will be used in producing imitations of rosewood and mahogany, in making car wheels, and even in constructing railway carriages and steamships.

Canada exports large quantities of agricultural implements to Europe, Australia, and South America.



MINERALS
Coal • Iron • Gold • Silver •
Other Minerals

120°

Longitude, 105° West from

Fleet at the Mouth of the Fraser River, B.C.

utility in manufactures, are found the many rivers which gold, silver and lead, as we have waterways, all teem with iron, lime, petroleum, salt, copper the importance of the inland resources of Canada are all but increased during the last are also deposits of platinum, manganese annual value did not exceed gypsum, antimony and plumbago, e had risen to \$1,407,000 other important minerals. in 1850. Ten years later 000. This rapid increase

Silver is found chiefly in the annual value of the fisheries of Ontario and British Columbia. An army of fishermen tario the richest silver district is sing boats and fishing shore of Lake Superior. In British Colum- bia the Slocan district of West Kootenay has recently come into great prominence as a producer of silver and lead.

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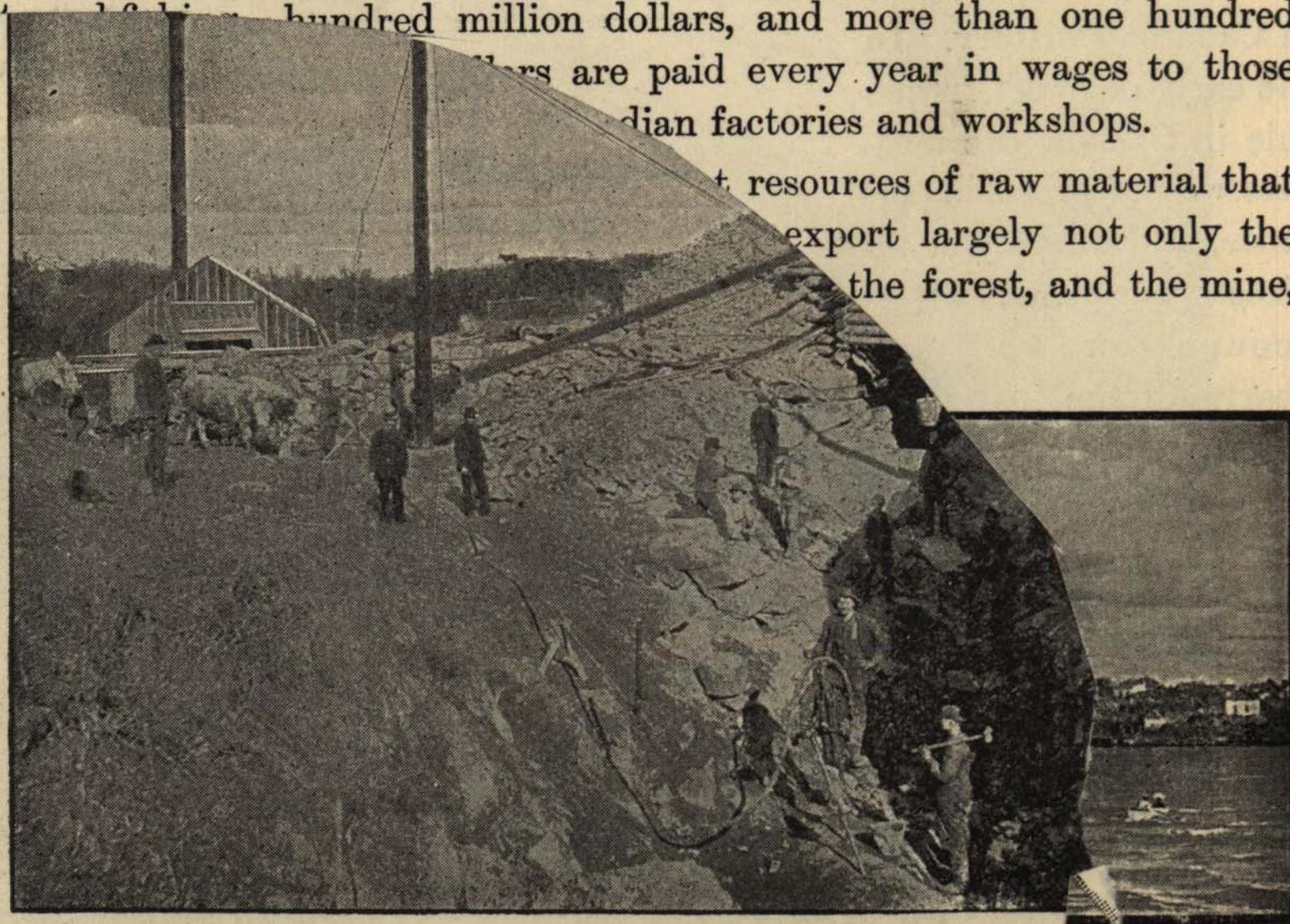
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weighted at the bottom by lead. The fish in their efforts to pass through are caught by the gills and held fast.

14. Manufactures.

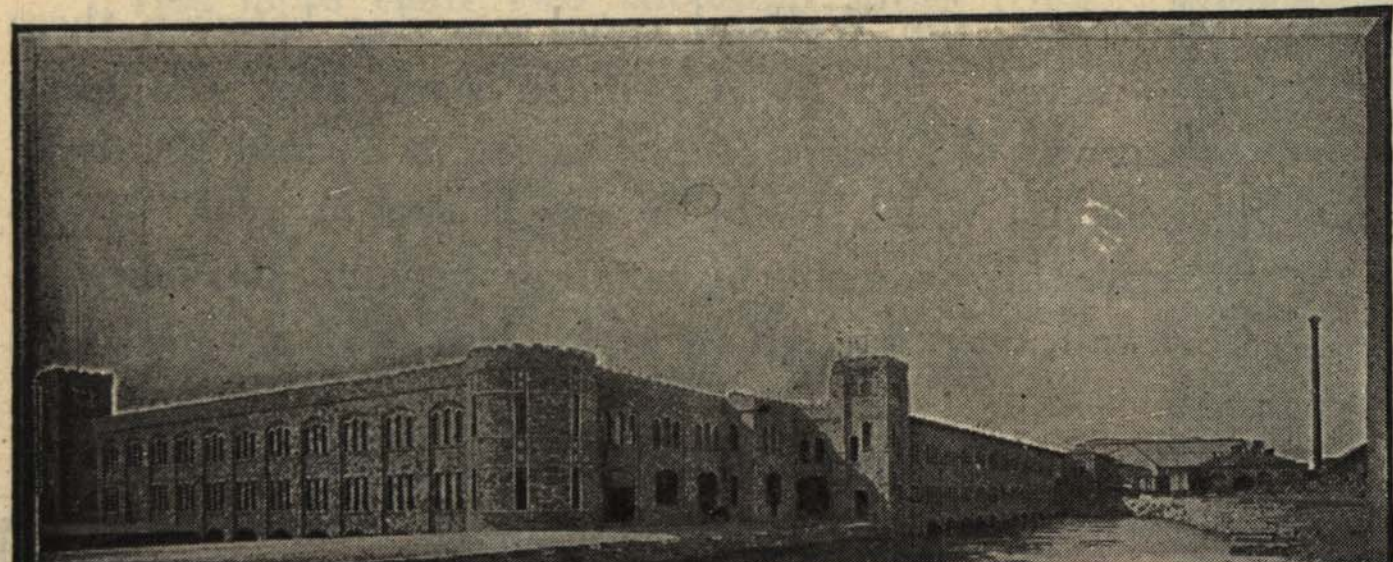
Canada has made rapid development as a manufacturing country. Most of the common articles and machines we use, from matches, pins, boots, and clothing to agricultural implements, engines, and mill-machinery, are now made in our own country. The money invested in manufacturing in Canada amounts to about four hundred million dollars, and more than one hundred men are paid every year in wages to those Canadian factories and workshops.

resources of raw material that export largely not only the the forest, and the mine,



Phosphate and Mica Mining, Silver Lake, Ont.

One of the most interesting and distinctive manufactures carried on in Canada is the preparation of wood-pulp, used in the making of paper. When we think of all the books in the world, of the millions of newspapers printed every day, and of the thousands of tons of wrapping paper used every year by merchants, we shall readily understand that the making of paper must be an industry of immense importance.



Sault Ste. Marie Pulp and Paper Co.

In times past rags, which were bleached, soaked, and ground into pulp, were the chief material used in the manufacture of paper. It would be quite impossible now-

a-days to get enough rags for this purpose. Paper-makers are therefore compelled to seek other materials, among which are straw, the fibre of various plants, and wood-pulp. Of these, by far the most widely used, is wood-pulp.

In the northern part of Ontario, in Quebec, and in the Maritime Provinces there are vast areas of spruce forest. This wood makes excellent pulp for the manufacture of paper. Most of the paper used in the United Kingdom is made of the wood of the spruce-tree.

Wood-pulp is of two varieties. One is called the "mechanical" or "ground-pulp," and is obtained by simply grinding up the spruce logs in water to a pulpy mass, and afterwards pressing this mass till it is dry enough to handle conveniently for shipment to the paper mills. The other variety is called the "chemical pulp."

To obtain this the wood is cut into small chips, then boiled with lime and acid, and afterwards pressed like the ground pulp. The chemical pulp is much the more valuable, and is used in the manufacture of paper of superior quality, such as you find in the better class of books. There were thirty-nine pulp-mills in Canada in 1903, the value of their output exceeding \$5,000,000.

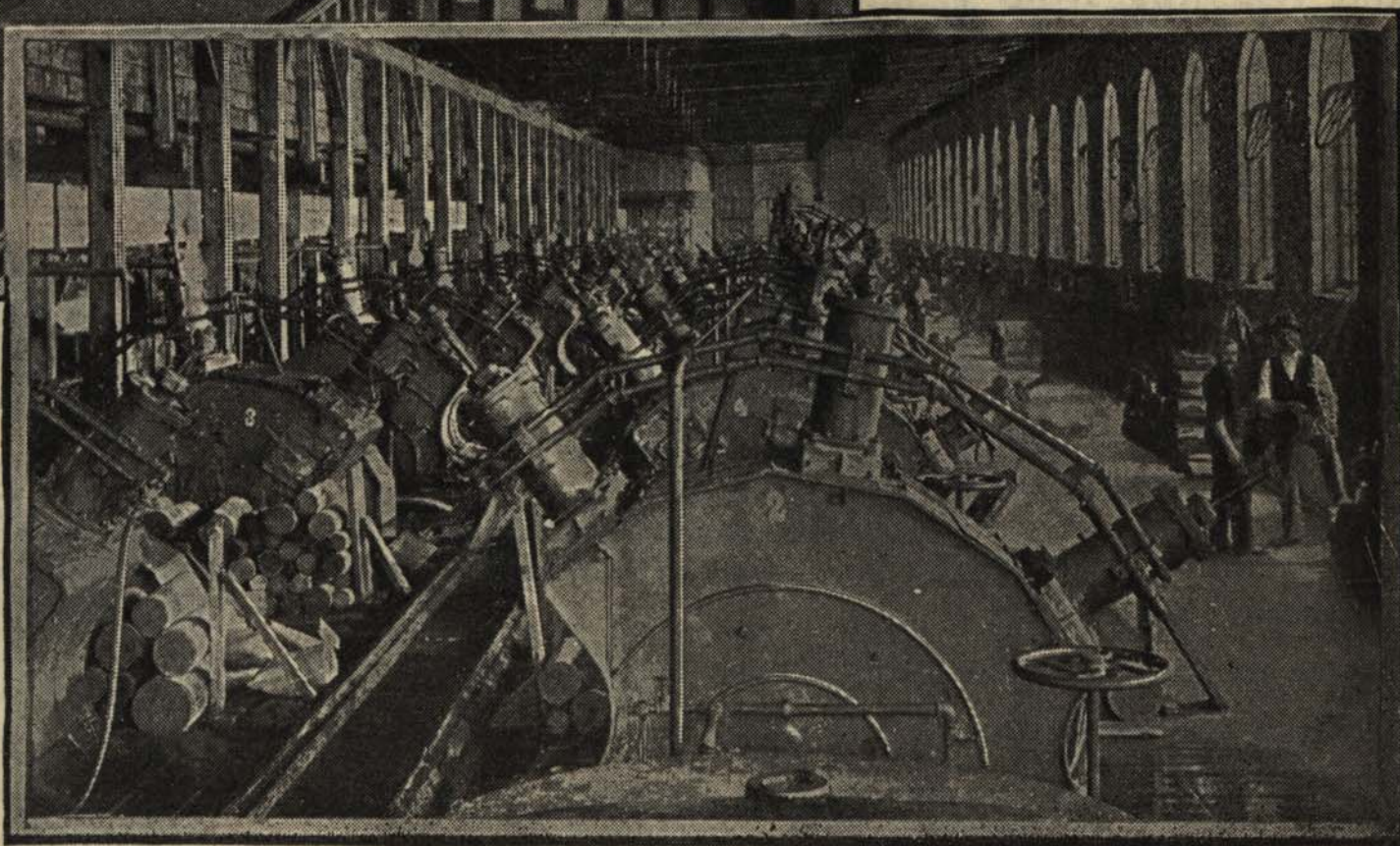
The output of Canadian pulp-mills is about 275,000 tons per year. The value of the material ranges from about \$15 a ton for the ground-pulp to two or three times that sum for the chemical pulp. On account of the superior qualities of the Canadian spruce,—the best for the purpose in the world,—there is no reason why, with the employment of ample capital and the introduction of the most modern machinery, Canada should not lead the world in the wood-pulp industry.

At present the greatest producer of wood-pulp is Norway. It supplies over sixty per cent. of the amount shipped into the United Kingdom.

Besides its use in the manufacture of paper, wood-pulp is capable



Wet Machine Room.



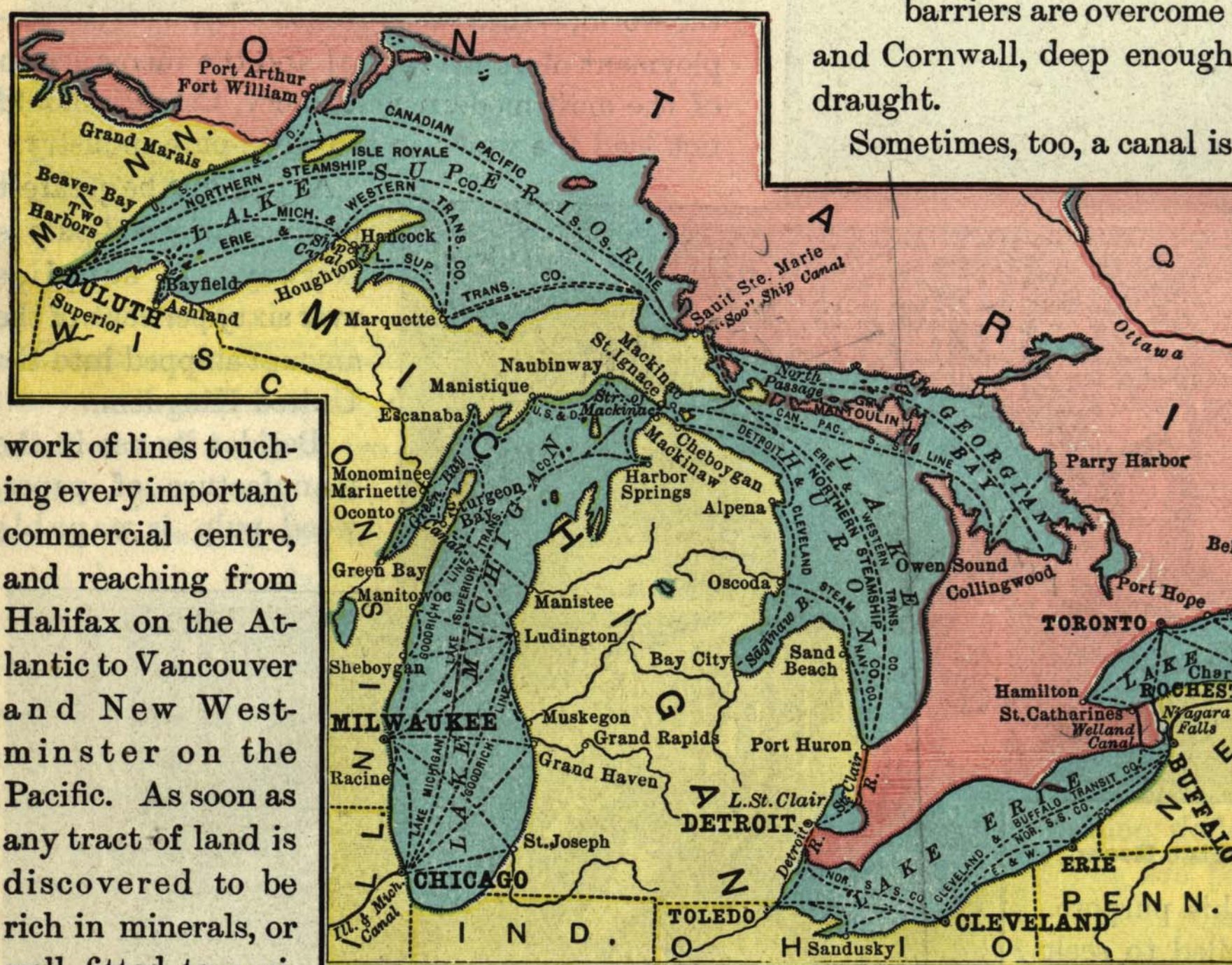
Grinder Room.

of being employed for a great variety of purposes. Already it is manufactured into pails, tubs, barrels, doors and sashes, and it is thought that before long it will be used in producing imitations of rosewood and mahogany, in making car wheels, and even in constructing railway carriages and steamships.

Canada exports large quantities of agricultural implements to Europe, Australia, and South America.

15. Railways.

The growth and development of Canadian railways has been most rapid. The first Canadian railway was begun in 1832, and ran from La Prairie on the St. Lawrence to St. Johns on the Richelieu. In 1904 Canada had one hundred and seventy-eight railroads, with over twenty thousand miles of railway in operation, and this mileage is yearly increasing. In the matter of railway mileage this young country already ranks seventh among the nations of the world. Thirty years ago there was not a mile of railroad in Canada, west of the Province of Ontario. Now the great railway systems form a net-



Waterways of the Great Lakes.

work of lines touching every important commercial centre, and reaching from Halifax on the Atlantic to Vancouver and New Westminster on the Pacific. As soon as any tract of land is discovered to be rich in minerals, or well fitted to agriculture, steps are taken to provide it with railway facilities. In this way the growth of railways has gone on hand in hand with the general development of the country.

Of the numerous railway systems in Canada, the four most important are the Canadian Pacific, the Grand Trunk, the Intercolonial, and the Canadian Northern.

By the building of the Canadian Pacific railway, finished in 1885, a trans-continental route has been established, and the vast fertile and mineral regions of Manitoba, the North-West Territories, and British Columbia, have been thrown open to settlers. This railway is of incalculable importance not only to Canada but to the Empire, forming as it does the great imperial highway

between East and West. At both terminals it is strongly fortified.

16. Canals.

Look at a map of Ontario and you will find that Lake Erie is connected with Lake Ontario by the Niagara river. But this river is barred by the great cataract of Niagara, rendering it useless for navigation. To overcome this difficulty, and to open an unbroken waterway, the Welland canal was dug between these two lakes. The St. Lawrence river also, the great waterway of Canada, is obstructed at certain points by rapids up which boats or vessels cannot pass. These barriers are overcome by canals at Lachine, Beauharnois, and Cornwall, deep enough to admit vessels of fourteen feet draught.

Sometimes, too, a canal is dug merely to shorten a circuitous

water route. The distance from Kingston to Ottawa by way of the St. Lawrence river and the Ottawa river, is little short of three hundred miles. Looking again at the map of Ontario you will notice a canal which, begin-

ning at Kingston, passes through the Counties of Frontenac, Leeds, and Grenville, and finally joins the Rideau river. This is the Rideau canal. By this route the distance from Kingston to Ottawa is shortened to one hundred and twenty-six miles, of which only twenty-nine miles had to be artificially constructed. The remaining ninety-seven miles are made up by the Rideau river, Rideau lake, and other connecting bodies of water.

The first Canadian canal built was that at Lachine, begun in 1821, to surmount the famous Lachine rapids. The largest Canadian canal,—that is the one giving passage to the largest ships, is the Sault Ste. Marie canal, between Lake Superior and Lake Huron. This

has a depth of twenty-two feet, and a lock nine hundred feet long by sixty feet wide.

17. The Waterways of Canada

Canada contains the finest waterways in the world. The larger portion of fresh water on the globe is in our country. With only one trans-shipment freight may be carried more than two thousand miles from the Atlantic. Lakes and large rivers abound everywhere. The great lakes between Canada and the United States form by far the best inland system of water transportation to be found anywhere. The lakes of this system alone contain more than half the fresh water of the world.

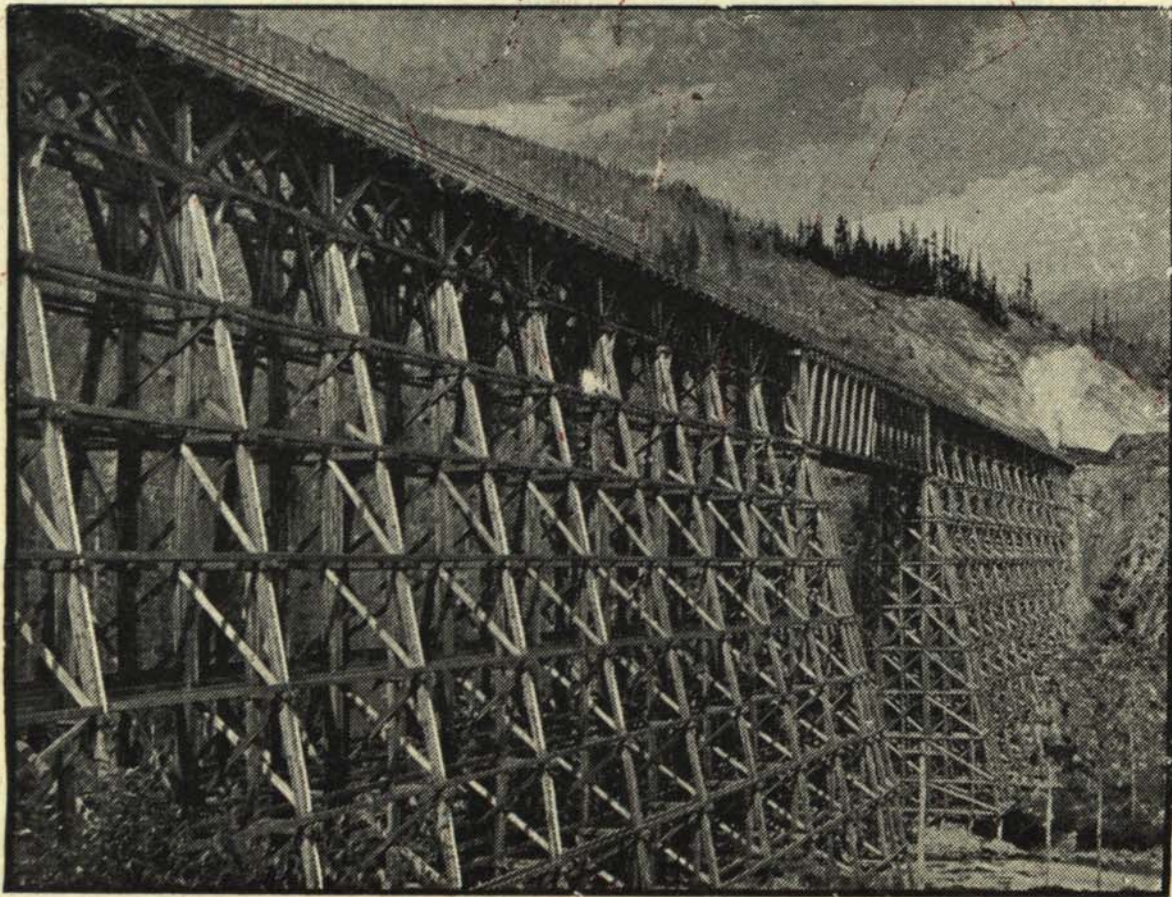


Area and Population.

PROVINCES.	Area in sq. miles.	Population (1901).	CAPITAL.	Population. (1901).
Ontario.....	260,000	2,182,947	Toronto	208,041
Quebec	351,060	1,648,898	Quebec	68,840
New Brunswick .	28,000	331,120	Fredericton...	7,117
Nova Scotia.	21,000	459,574	Halifax	40,832
P. E. Island.....	2,000	103,259	Charlottetown	12,080
		(1906)		(1906)
Manitoba	74,000	365,888	Winnipeg	90,204
Saskatchewan ...	250,000	257,763	Regina.....	6,169
Alberta	253,000	190,000	Edmonton ...	13,500
Brit. Columbia ..	372,000	178,657	Victoria.....	25,000
Territories.....	2,129,811	52,709		
Yukon Territory, 196,100 sq. miles; North-West Territory, 1,933,711.				

Analytical Review of Canada.

How long is it since Canada was discovered? Who inhabited Canada when it was discovered? How many Indians are now in Canada?



Mountain Creek Bridge, C.P.R., 1,500,000 ft. of Timber (as originally built).

"Kicking Horse" Canyon, C.P.R.

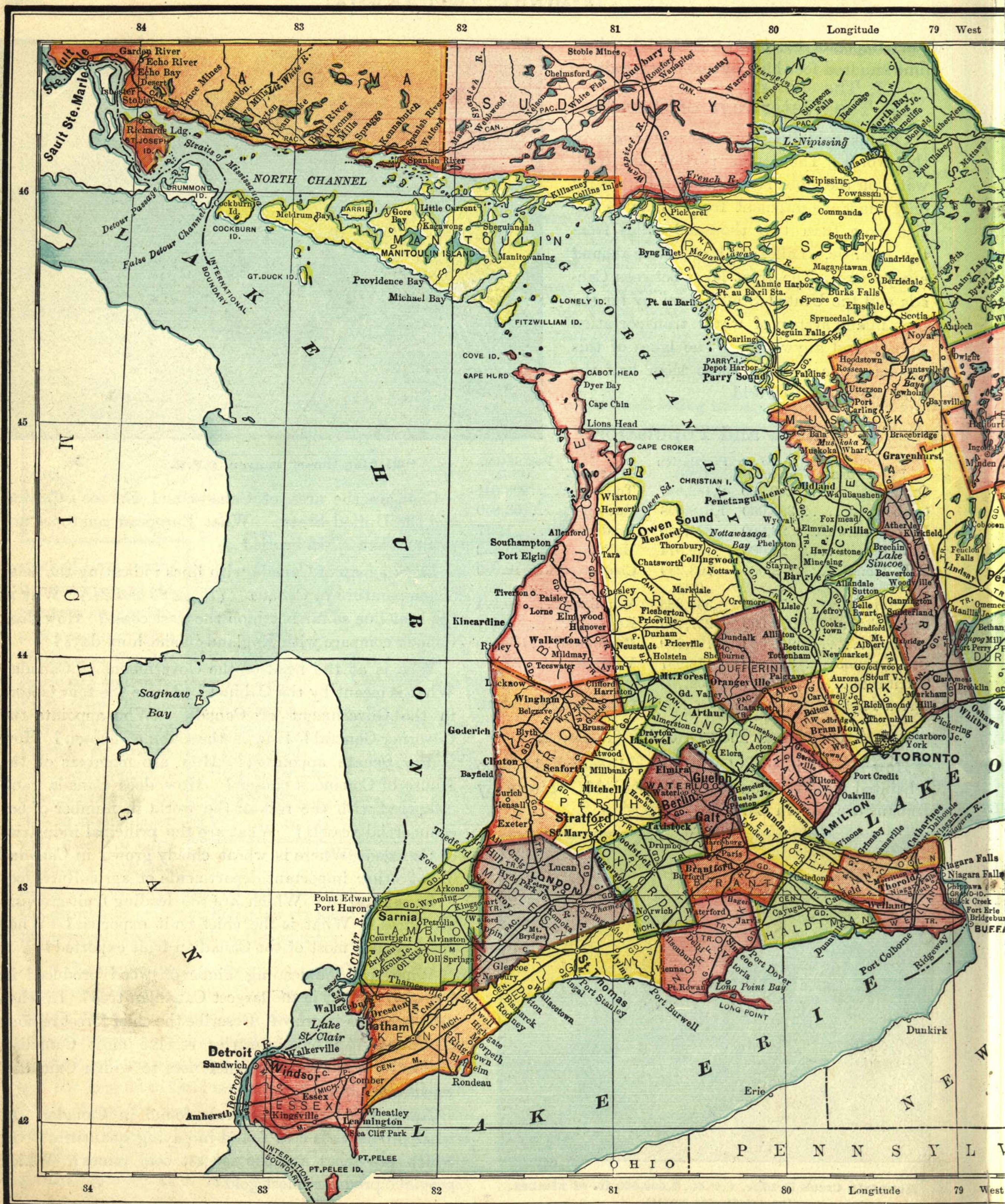
Compare the area of Canada and Europe; Canada and the United States. What European countries are smaller than Nova Scotia?

Draw a map of Canada with lines indicating the belts of temperature in Canada. (Pages 23 and 24.) Why is the heat line so far north on the west coast? How does Canada compare with England in sunshiny days?

Who is at the head of the Government of Canada? What is meant by the Cabinet? Name the four factors in the Government of Canada. Who appoints the Governor-General? How is the Cabinet chosen? How is the Senate appointed? How are members of the House of Commons chosen? How does Canada rank compared with the rest of the world in number of her commercial vessels? What are the principal industries of Canada? Where is wheat chiefly grown in Canada? What other important departments of agriculture does Canada excel in? Which are the leading fruit-growing provinces? What is the chief fruit exported? What country uses most of the Canadian fruit exported?

What are the leading kinds of wood produced in Canada? What is the largest Canadian tree? In what province does it grow? Describe the chief forest regions of Canada. What countries receive most Canadian lumber? What are the chief uses to which Canadian woods are applied?

Name the leading minerals found in Canada. In what provinces is coal found in paying quantities? In which provinces are the largest coal mines? Which province produces most gold?





PROVINCE OF ONTARIO

0 5 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80
SCALE OF MILES
W. J. GAGE, COMPANY, TORONTO.



WESTERN PART OF ONTARIO

0 25 50 100 150
SCALE OF MILES

ONTARIO.

Map Studies.

Name the boundary lakes and rivers of Ontario. Of the rivers, which two are the largest? Where do they rise? Where do they empty? Name the Great Lakes. Which is



UNIVERSITY COLLEGE

What islands in the Ottawa river belong to Quebec? With what lakes is Georgian Bay connected? Is it salt or fresh water? Name five of the largest inland lakes of Ontario.

What are the two



Toronto.

the largest? Describe an all-water route from Lake Superior to Montreal. Describe two all-water routes from Kingston to Ottawa.

How is Lake Erie connected with Lake Ontario? Is Niagara river suitable for navigation? Why? How is the difficulty overcome?

What is the largest island in lake Huron? Name three others in this lake. Name two islands in Lake Superior.

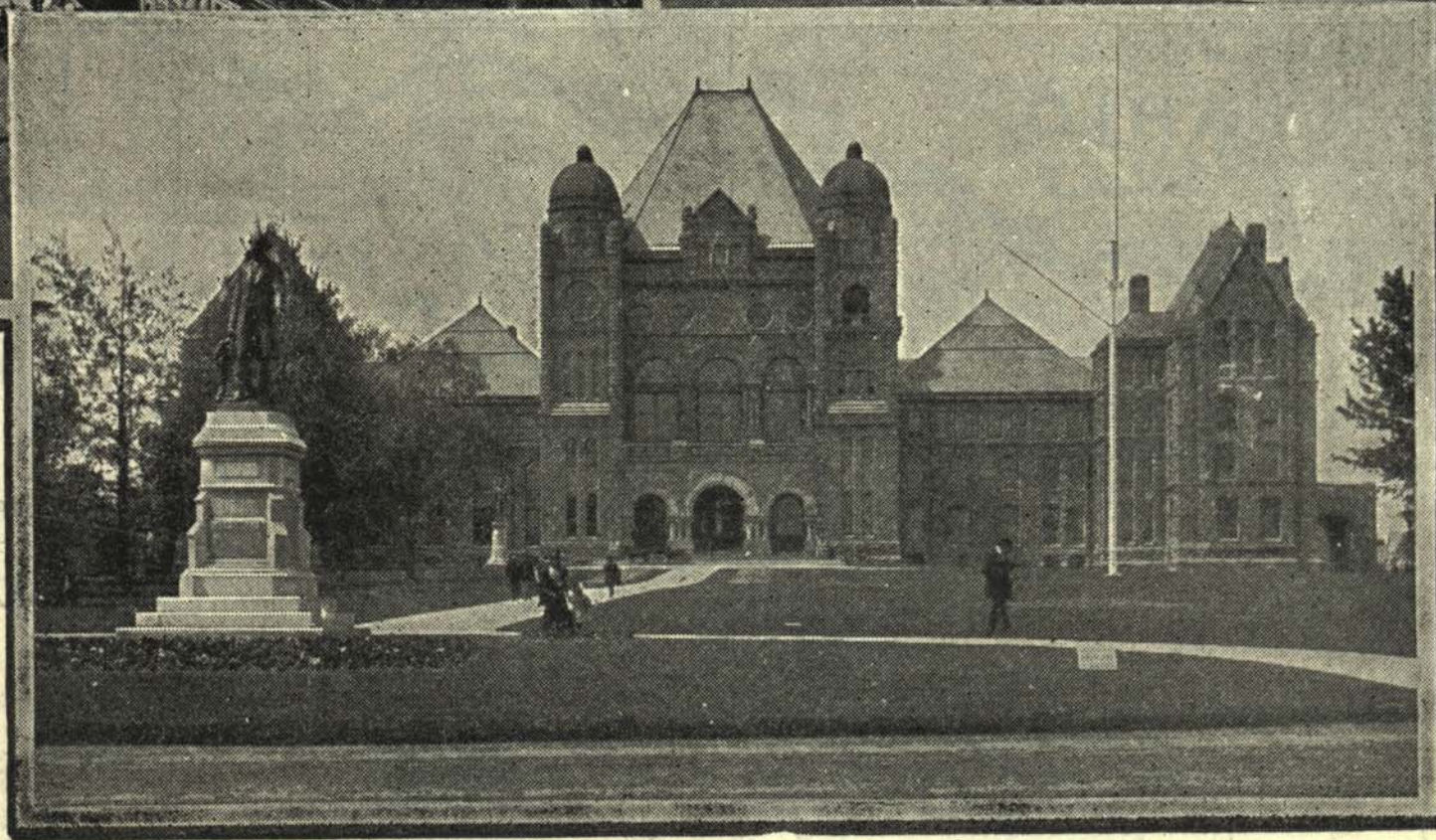


Osgoode Hall.

leading railways in Ontario? What railways run into the following places? (Take each place separately.) Toronto, Hamilton, Ottawa, London, Kingston, Guelph, Belleville, Peterboro', St. Catharines, Brant-

ford, St. Thomas, Stratford, Chatham, Sarnia. Name the chief rivers of Ontario that flow into Georgian Bay; Lake Huron; Lake Erie; Lake Ontario; the Ottawa River.

Draw a map of Ontario with the leading rivers, and



Parliament Buildings, Toronto.



Niagara Falls.

mark the highest parts of the province after studying its watersheds.

What counties are drained by the Severn? The Maitland? The Thames? The Grand? The Trent?

In what latitude is the most southern part of Ontario?

What is the longitude of the most easterly part of Ontario? Of the most westerly?

Name the counties, with their county towns, bordering on Lake Ontario; on Georgian Bay; on Lake Erie; on the Ottawa River; on Lake Huron; on the St. Lawrence River; on the Bay of Quinte; on Lake Simcoe; in the interior of Ontario.

Where is Manitoulin Island?

What waters are connected by the Rideau canal? By the Welland canal? What cities or towns at the ends of these canals?

Physical Features.—The northern and north-western part of Ontario is hilly and rocky, with many lakes, formed by the ice-flow during the glacial period. The southern portion, near the great lakes, is chiefly level and very fertile.

Climate.—The climate of Ontario varies greatly in the different localities. Along the shore of Lake Erie and in the Niagara district, on account of the modifying influence of the Great Lakes, neither the heat of summer nor the cold of winter is excessive. Here peaches, grapes, and many other varieties of fruit grow in abundance. In the central district greater extremes in temperature are observed; while in the northern sections of the province, though the summers are warm and bright, the winter seasons are long and severe. Everywhere, however, the climate is healthy and invigorating.

Government.—The government of Ontario consists of a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by the Dominion Government, an Executive Council, and a Legislative Assembly elected by the people.

Agriculture.—Of the various industries carried on in the Province of Ontario, agriculture is the most important. The soil, the climate, and the splendid means of transportation both by rail and water largely account for this. Wheat, barley, oats, peas, hay and potatoes are grown in large quantities. Stock-raising and dairy-farming are leading de-

partments of agricultural work. Fruits of many varieties are produced in abundance, especially in the Erie and Niagara districts

Lumbering.—The lumber industry is very important. Ontario has millions of acres of unsurpassed timber lands. These lands are, for the most part, confined to the northern districts, and are among the most valuable resources of the province. White pine and spruce are the trees of greatest value.

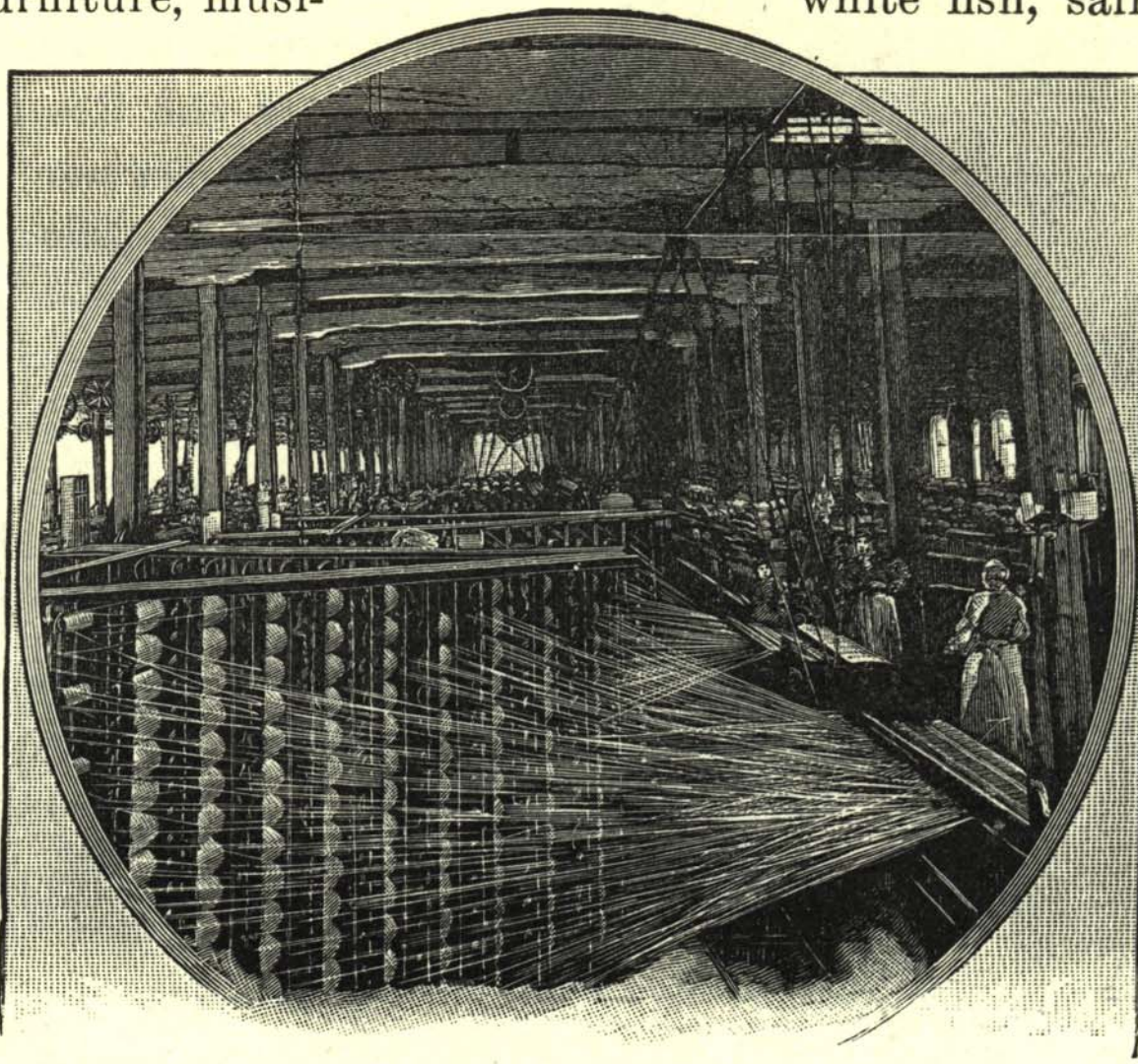


Niagara Gorge.

Manufactures.—Among the important products of Ontario's factories are machinery of all kinds, cotton and woollen goods, furniture, musical instruments, boots and shoes, tobacco, wood-pulp, and paper. Much of this output is consumed in Canada, but there are very important exports of manufactured products to other countries. Agricultural machinery, musical instruments, and furniture are sent to Europe, South America, South Africa, and Australia.

Mining.—The mineral areas of Ontario are widely scattered throughout the province. Gold is found in considerable quantities near the Lake of the Woods and in the Rainy river district, and to a lesser extent in Hastings county and other places. Copper and nickel are found in abundance near Sudbury; valuable iron ores to the

and give annual employment to over three thousand men. The most important fish in her waters are white fish, salmon trout, bass, pickerel, and sturgeon.



Interior of Cotton Mill.

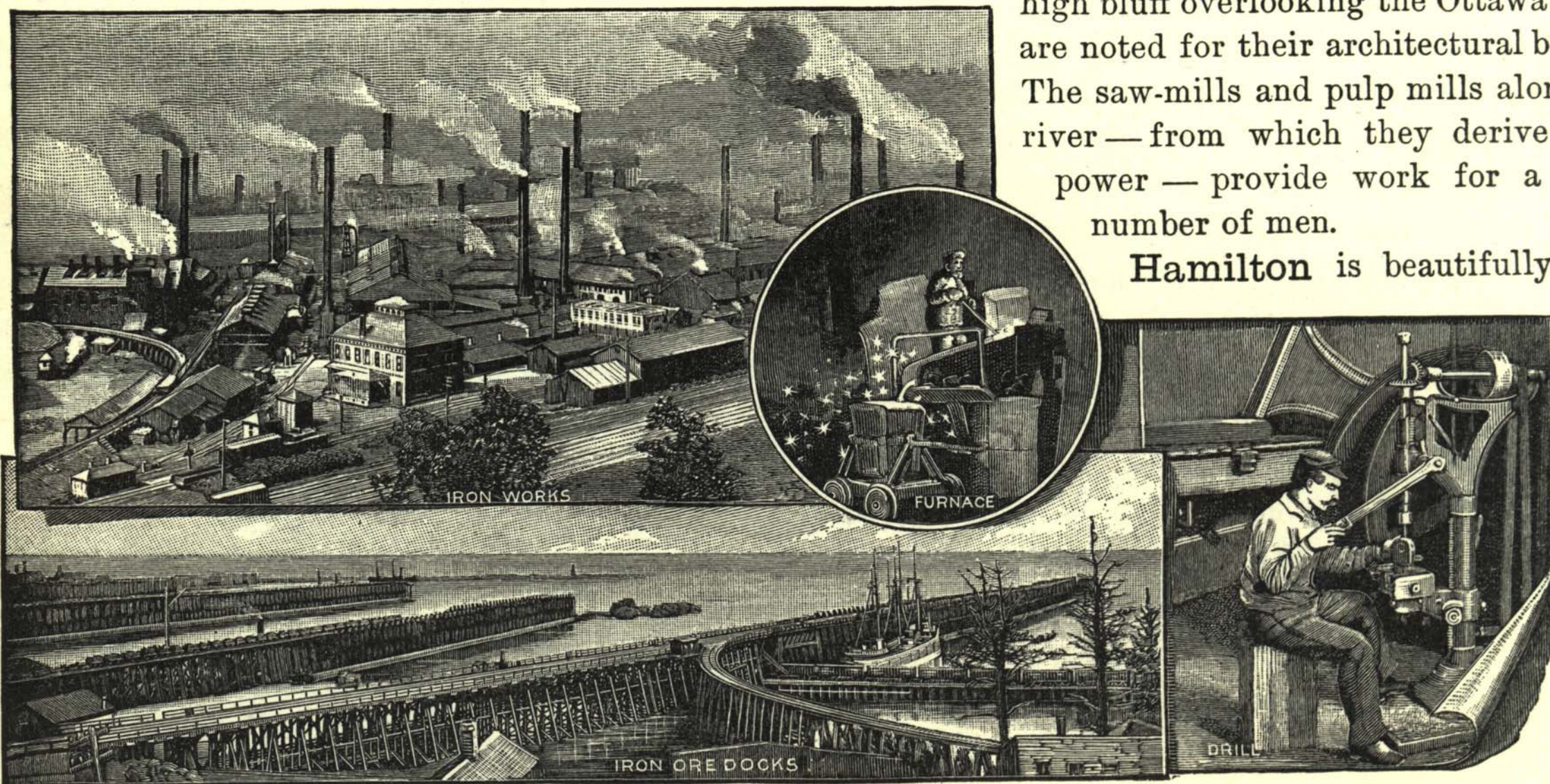
Cities in Ontario.

Toronto is the capital of the Province, and is the second city in size in the Dominion. It has a good harbor, behind the shelter of a low island. It possesses fine parks and many handsome public buildings. The manufactured products of Toronto are of a most varied character. Agricultural implements, engines, mill machinery of all kinds, bicycles, furniture, musical instruments, and carpets

are the leading manufactures.

Ottawa is the second largest of the cities of Ontario, and the seat of the Dominion Government. The Parliament buildings, superbly situated on a high bluff overlooking the Ottawa river, are noted for their architectural beauty. The saw-mills and pulp mills along the river—from which they derive their power—provide work for a great number of men.

Hamilton is beautifully situ-



north of Lake Huron, and in Victoria, Hastings, and Lanark counties; salt and petroleum in the western peninsula; and natural gas in the Lake Erie region.

Fishing.—Though Ontario is an inland province, she has a great fishing industry. Her fresh-water fisheries are the greatest of their kind in the world,

ated on a bay at the head of Lake Ontario. It is the third city in the Province. It is a progressive city, and has manufactures of considerable value, among which machinery, farm implements, stoves, boots and shoes, cotton and woollen goods, and pig iron are the most important.



Ottawa.

London is the chief city of the western peninsula of the Province. It is surrounded by a splendid farming district from which it derives much of its importance. It is in the centre of a very large district, and does a wholesale trade with the surrounding towns. It manufactures agricultural implements, machinery, boots and shoes, furniture, and railway cars and engines, and has large oil refineries.

Kingston is the oldest city in the province, and was originally a fortified post established as a defence against the Iroquois. It ranks next to Quebec and Halifax for military strength, and is the seat of Queen's University and the Royal Military College. The chief manufactures are railway locomotives and cars.

Brantford is an important railway centre. Its manufactures consist chiefly of agricultural implements, machinery, and cloth, both woollen and cotton.

Stratford is a railway centre, and is in the best dairy district of Ontario. It manufactures agricultural implements and furniture.

Windsor is an important railway terminus, and is the centre of a fertile district, noted for its fruit.

St. Thomas is a busy railway centre. The Michigan Central railway has large shops here.

Guelph is in the heart of a fine agri-

cultural district. Besides doing a large trade in farm produce, it is also noted as a cattle market. Pianos and organs, engines, and agricultural implements are some of the most important manufactured products.

Belleville is a charming city, and manufactures large quantities of lumber and agricultural implements. It is a distributing centre for the large farming and mining country north of it.

St. Catharines is near the entrance to the Welland canal from Lake Ontario. It has large nurseries, flour mills, and paper mills. It manufactures edge tools, and is surrounded by a fine fruit district.

Chatham is both a railway and shipping centre. It manufactures engines and agricultural implements.

Niagara Falls has become a great centre for developing electrical power.

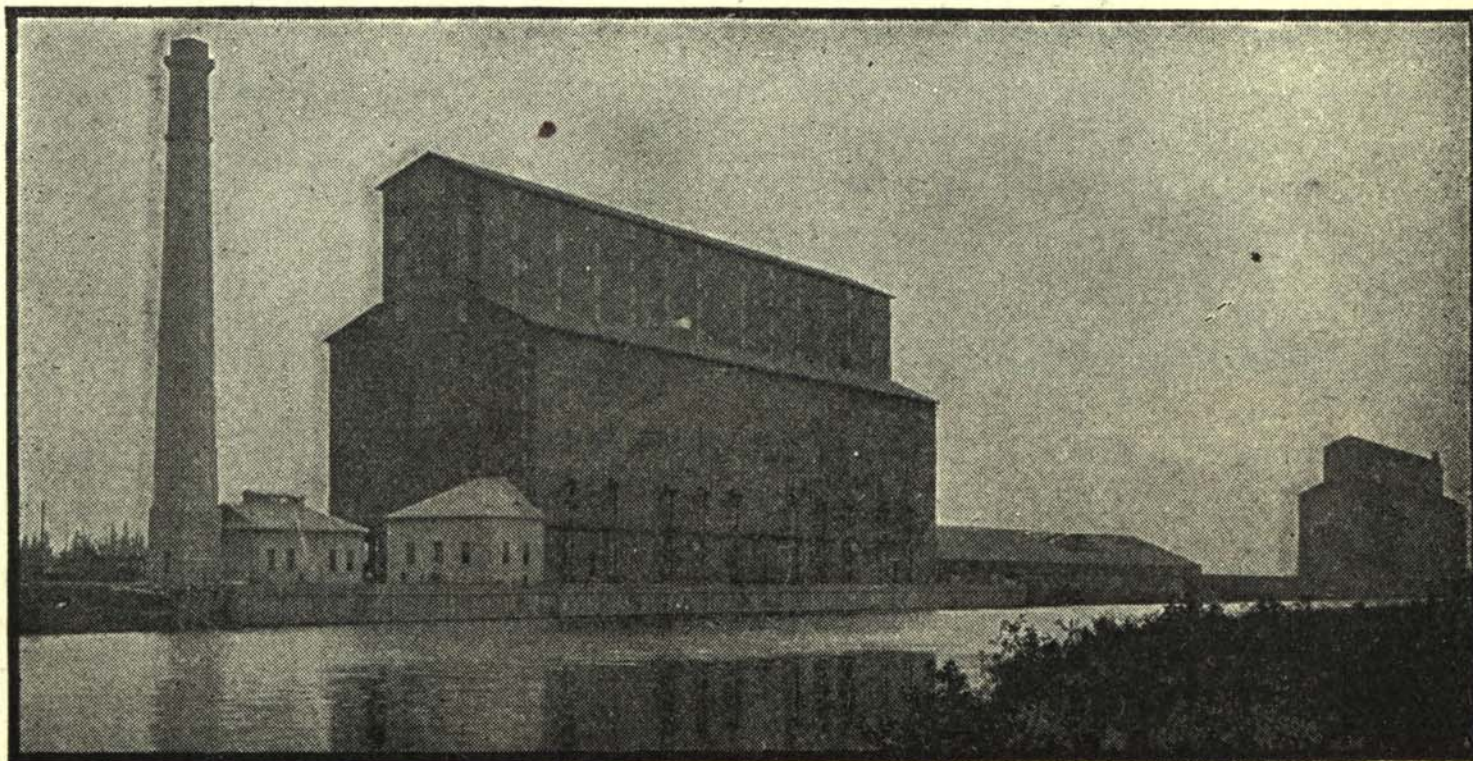
Peterborough, the youngest city, has extensive electrical works and mills for the manufacture of cereal food.

HOME EXERCISES—Make a list of the cities of Ontario, with the rivers or other waters on which they are situated, and the railroads that run through or into them.

Examine the locations of the cities of Ontario on the map and write the reasons you can give to prove that they are situated where large cities should be found.



Rideau Falls.

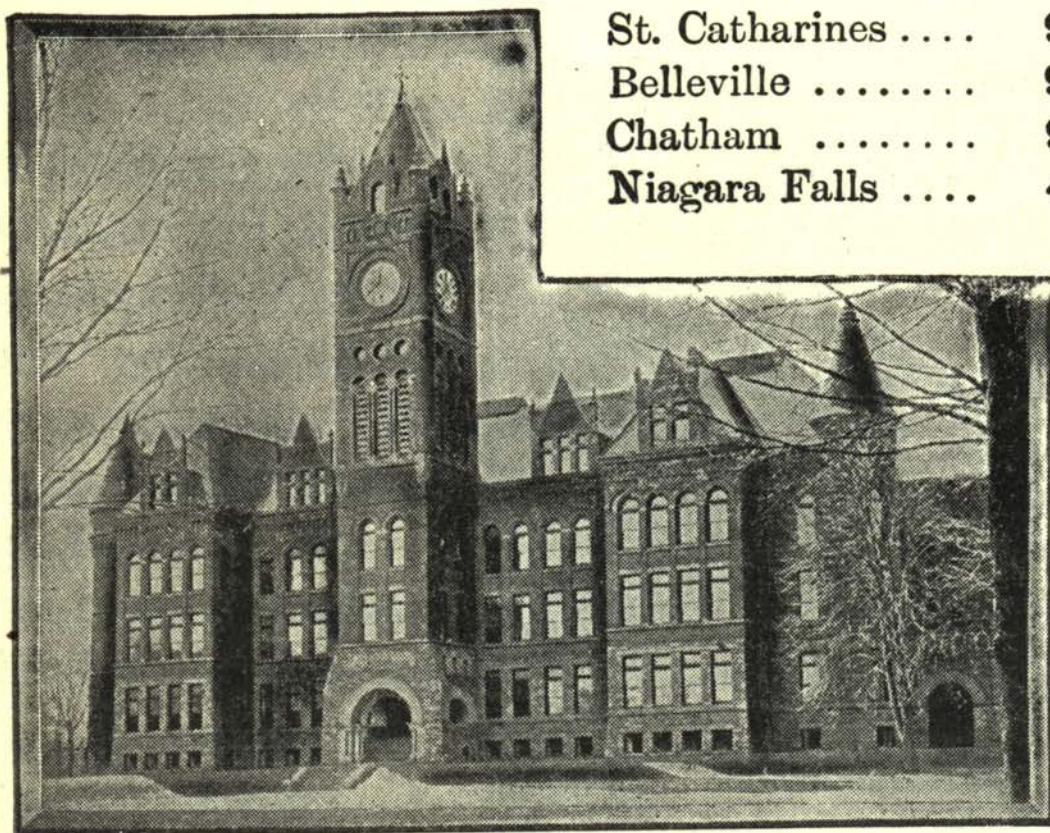


C. P. R. Grain Elevators at Fort William.

Cities of Ontario.

Population, 1901.

Toronto	208,041	Brantford	16,618
Ottawa	59,928	Windsor	12,153
Hamilton	52,634	Guelph	11,496
London	37,983	St. Thomas	11,485
Kingston	17,963	Peterborough	11,239
		Stratford	9,959
		St. Catharines	9,946
		Belleville	9,117
		Chatham	9,068
		Niagara Falls	4,244

**Normal College, Hamilton.****Chief Towns of Ontario.**

Population, 1901.

Berlin	9,747	Perth	3,588
Brockville	8,940	Waterloo	3,537
Woodstock	8,833	Gananoque	3,526
Owen Sound	8,776	St. Mary's	3,384
Sarnia	8,176	Paris	3,229
Galt	7,866	Port Arthur	3,214
Sault Ste. Marie	7,169	Midland	3,174
Lindsay	7,003	Dundas	3,173
Cornwall	6,704	Renfrew	3,153
West Toronto	6,091	Napanee	3,143
Barrie	5,949	Almonte	3,023
Collingwood	5,755	Prescott	3,019
Kenora	5,202	Walkerton	2,971
Pembroke	5,156	Strathroy	2,933
Smith's Falls	5,155	Parry Sound	2,884
Orillia	4,907	Wallaceburg	2,763
Ingersoll	4,573	Brampton	2,748
Oshawa	4,394	Bowmanville	2,731
Cobourg	4,239	Listowel	2,693
Trenton	4,217	Simcoe	2,627
Port Hope	4,188	Clinton	2,547
Goderich	4,158	North Bay	2,531
Hawkesbury	4,150	Orangeville	2,511
Arnprior	4,152	Leamington	2,451
Petrolia	4,139	Penetanguishene	2,422
Carleton Place	4,059	Seaforth	2,247
Picton	3,698	Whitby	2,110
Fort William	3,633	Kincardine	2,077

Locate the above towns that are not county towns.

NOTE.—There are in Ontario 15 cities, and 98 towns.

**The St. Clair Tunnel.****Ports of Ontario.****LAKE SUPERIOR** :—Michipicoton, Nipigon, Fort William, Port Arthur.**GEORGIAN BAY** :—Parry Sound, Maganetawan, Midland, Penetanguishene, Collingwood, Meaford, Owen Sound, Wiarton (Colpoy Bay).**LAKE HURON** :—Sarnia, Bayfield, Goderich, Kincardine, Elgin, Southampton, Bruce Mines, Little Current, Manitowaning.**LAKE ERIE** :—Rondeau, Stanley, Burwell, Ryerse, Rowan, Dover, Maitland, Port Colborne.**LAKE ONTARIO AND BAY OF QUINTE** :—Niagara, Dalhousie, Hamilton, Oakville, Credit, Toronto, Liverpool, Whitby, Oshawa, Bowmanville (Darlington), Port Hope, Presqu'Isle (Brighton), Trenton, Belleville, Deseronto (Mill Point), Napanee, Picton, Kingston.**ST. LAWRENCE** :—Gananoque, Brockville, Prescott, Dickinson's Landing, Cornwall.**Kingston.**

QUEBEC.



Monument to Wolfe and Montcalm.

St. Louis Gate.

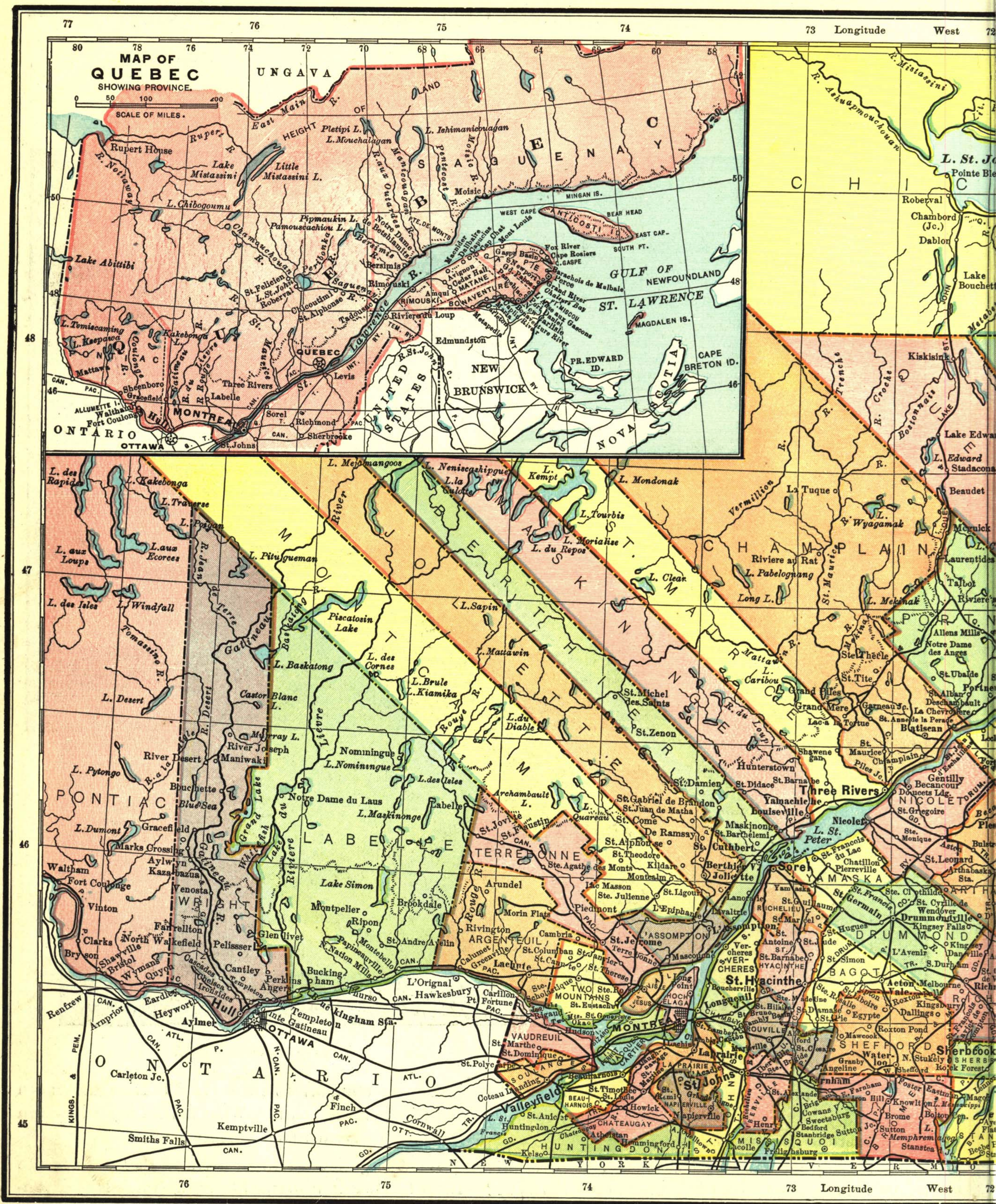
Map Studies.

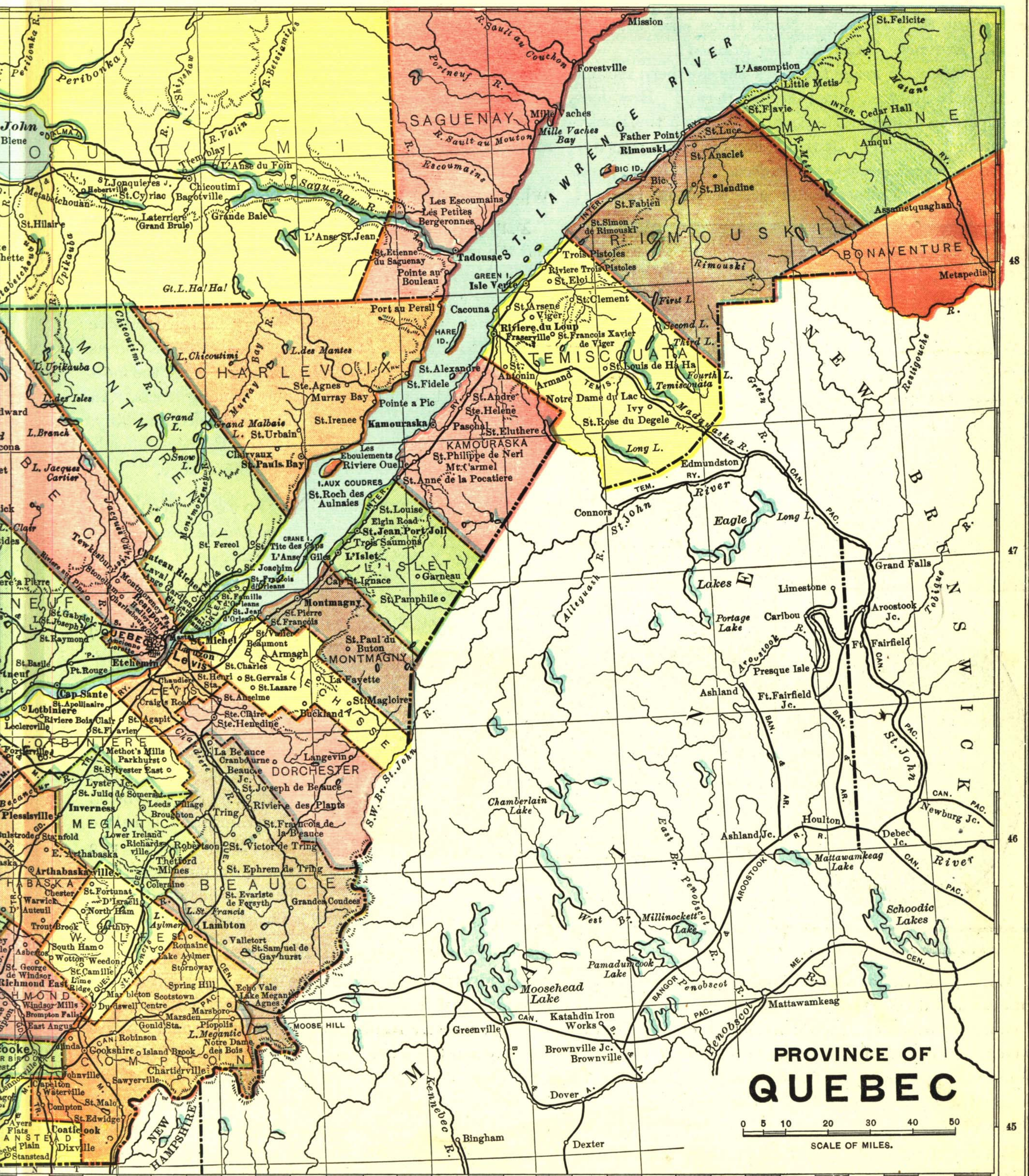
What rivers form the northern boundary of Quebec? What is the western boundary? The eastern boundary? The southern? *See pages 72 and 73.*

What river separates Quebec into two divisions? Where does it rise? Into what gulf does it empty?

Name six tributaries flowing into it from the north and four from the south. What is the largest island in this river? What island is at its mouth?

What large lake is there north of the St. Lawrence River? How is it drained? Name three lake expan-





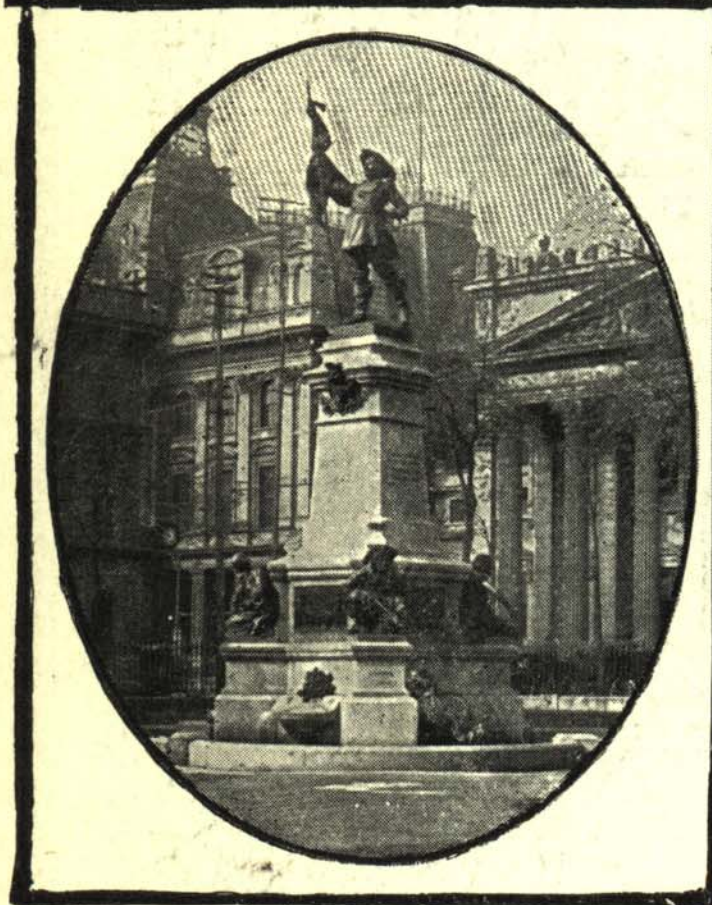
PROVINCE OF
QUEBEC

0 5 10 20 30 40 50
SCALE OF MILES.

sions of the St. Lawrence. Name three lakes south of the St. Lawrence. How are they drained?

What mountain range traverses the northern section of Quebec? In what direction does it run? How does it compare in extent and average height with the Rocky Mountain Highland of British Columbia? *See page 55.*

Give the exact location of Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal. What other cities are there in Quebec?



Maisonneuve's Monument.



Montreal Docks.

Where are they situated?

What provinces of Canada border on Quebec? What gulf washes its coast?

What counties of Quebec lie south of the Ottawa River? What counties border on New Brunswick? What counties border on the St. Lawrence on its north side? On its south side? On the north side of the Ottawa?

What difference do you find between the counties north of the St. Lawrence and those south of it in regard to size? Why is there a great difference in size?

Trace the Grand Trunk, Intercolonial, and Canadian Pacific railways in Quebec. What railways run into Quebec City? Name those that run into Montreal.

What is the most easterly county in Quebec?

Which of the United States lie immediately to the south of Quebec? *See page 123.*

What bay lies between Quebec and New Brunswick? What large river flows into this bay at its head-waters?

Physical Features.—Between the St. Lawrence and the range of the Laurentides, in the north, the surface is level and fairly fertile. Beyond the Laurentides are many unsettled tracts of undulating lands. These are all well watered. There are also several extensive plateaus to the east of the Saguenay, extending as far as Labrador. In the south-west the surface is for the most part level and comprises many fine farming tracts. In the east and south-east the country is rugged and hilly. The Notre Dame Mountains in the Gaspé Peninsula form the eastern end of the Appalachian range.

Government.—The Legislature of Quebec consists of the Lieutenant-Governor of the Province, who is appointed by the Dominion Government; a Legislative Assembly chosen by popular election; and a Legislative Council chosen by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, that is, by the Provincial Government. Quebec and Nova Scotia are the only provinces that have two chambers in the

legislature, an Assembly and a Legislative Council.

Industries and Manufactures.

Agriculture.—Much the greater portion of the population of Quebec is engaged in agriculture, or in pursuits directly resulting from it. Oats and hay are the two most valuable crops, followed in order by potatoes, peas and beans, wheat, barley and buckwheat. Stock-raising and the production of butter and cheese are of increasing importance. Beet-raising is carried on in some parts for the manufacture of sugar. Large quantities of apples are raised, and nearly every farm has its own maple grove, for sugaring in springtime.

Lumbering.—The timber trade stands next to agriculture, and furnishes a large part of the exports of the province. White and red pine, spruce, larch, cedar, birch and maple are the most important woods. The regions of the St. Maurice, and the tributaries of the Ottawa are the chief lumbering centres. The export of pulp-wood is largely increasing every year.

Fishing is carried on to a considerable extent along the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. There are famous fishing establishments on the Gaspé coast. Cod, salmon, mackerel, herring, halibut, and lobsters, are the chief varieties of fish that are caught. The river and inland fisheries are among the finest in the world.

Minerals.—Quebec is at a serious disadvantage in having no coal fields. Of the minerals obtained the chief are asbestos, an incombustible fibrous substance used in making lampwicks and fire-proof fabrics of various kinds; apatite or phosphate of lime, used as a fertilizer; and copper. Gold and silver are found in limited quantities. Slate, building stone, and marble of various kinds, are becoming important products. Thetford is the centre of the asbestos mining. Iron is manufactured in considerable quantities at Radnor and Drummondville.

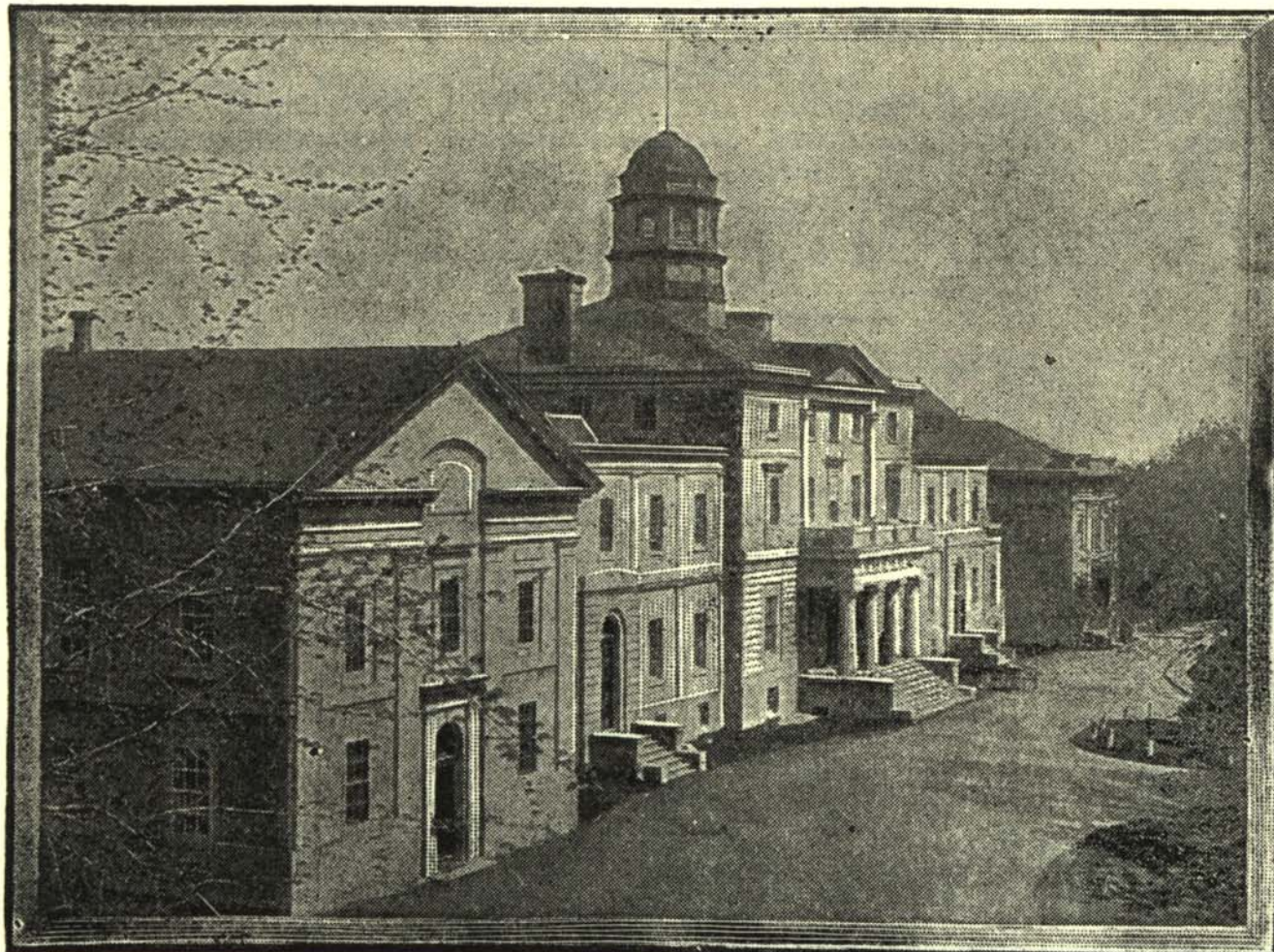
Manufactures.—The manufacturing industries of Quebec are steadily increasing in importance, water-power being much used in the absence of cheap coal for steam purposes. The chief branches of manufacture engaged in are tanning leather, boot and shoe making, sugar refining, manufactures of iron, furs, hats, cottons, woollens and india rubber. Most of the products are for the Canadian market.

Cities and Chief Towns.

Quebec, a strongly fortified city, is the capital of the province. It stands on the lake-like expansion of the St. Lawrence at the confluence of the St. Charles with that river. It consists of a *lower town*, where the more

important trading houses and factories are to be found; and an *upper town*, built on the plateau above. In population the city is the second in the province. Besides having important commercial interests as a shipping port, it is the leading centre of the Canadian boot and shoe trade. The attractive scenery in its vicinity and its historic associations make it a favorite resort for tourists.

Montreal has a splendid location on an island of the same name, situated in the St. Lawrence river, where the Ottawa flows into it. It is the largest city in the Dominion. In wealth and commercial importance, as well as in size, it takes first rank among Canadian



McGill College, Montreal.



Interior of Notre Dame Cathedral, Montreal.

cities. The manufactures of Montreal are varied and extensive. Hardware, boots and shoes, clothing, cottons, woollens, fur goods and sugar are the most important. It is here also that the principal car shops of both the Canadian Pacific and Grand Trunk railways are located. In the early days of Canada's history

Montreal, founded by Maisonneuve as an outpost **against** the Iroquois, wielded a vast influence because of its favorable position for the control of the fur trade. Its commercial supremacy is largely due to its unrivalled situation at the head of deep water navigation on Canada's great waterway. Its registered tonnage in 1904 was 97,689. The suburbs of Montreal, including **St. Henri** and **Westmount**, are becoming populous adjuncts to the city.

Hull, opposite the city of Ottawa, on the Ottawa

River, is noted for its timber trade and extensive manufacture of matches, paper and woodenware.

Sherbrooke, situated on the St. Francis River, has large manufacturing industries, chiefly in the making of woollen goods and machinery.

Three Rivers, situated a little to the west of the triple mouths of the St. Maurice, has an important timber trade.

St. Hyacinthe is a busy manufacturing city south of Montreal, on the Yamaska.

POPULATION OF CITIES AND TOWNS.

Population, 1901.

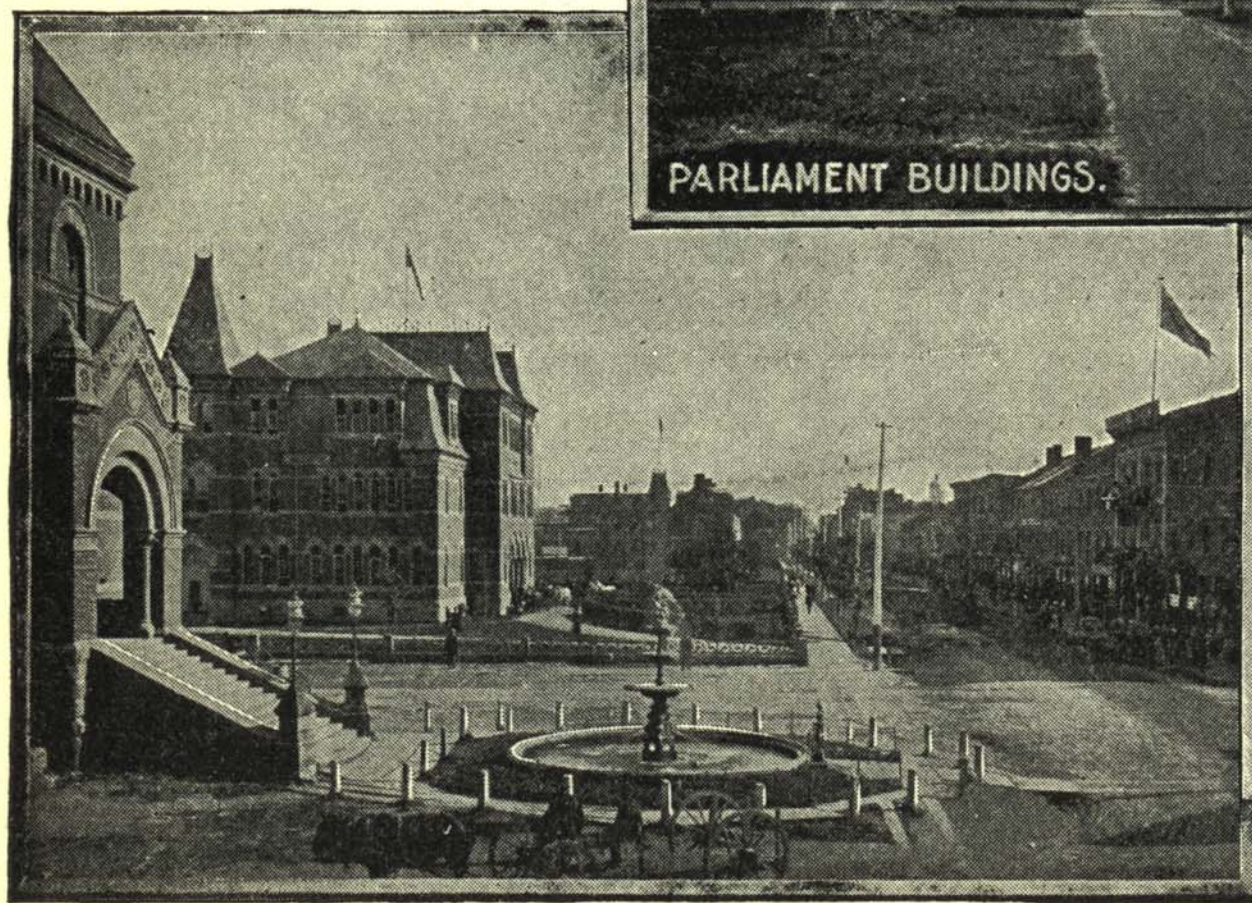
Montreal.....	267,730	Valleyfield	11,055	Sorel	7,057	Fraserville	4,569	Buckingham	2,936
Quebec.....	68,840	Three Rivers	10,739	Lachine	5,561	Chicoutimi	3,826	Coaticook	2,880
Hull.....	13,993	St. Hyacinthe	9,210	St. Johns	4,030	Magog	3,516	Longueuil	2,835
Sherbrooke	11,765	Levis.....	7,783	Joliette	4,220	Farnham	3,114	Aylmer	2,291

Locate the above cities and towns.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

Map Studies.

What province on the north of New Brunswick? Name the waters between this province and Quebec. What large body of water on the east? What large island on the east? Between it and New Brunswick what water? Name



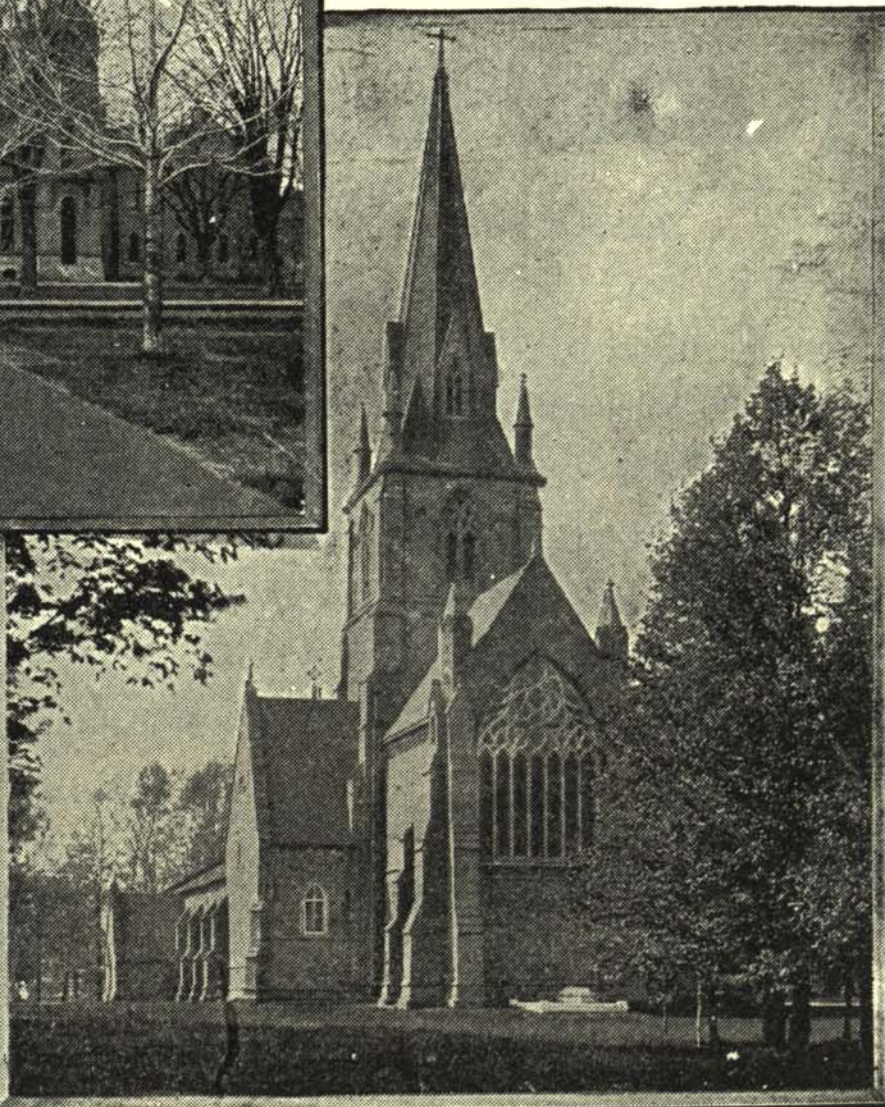
City Square and Normal School, Fredericton.

the province south of New Brunswick. Between these two provinces what large body of water? How is New Brunswick bounded on the west? What joins New Brunswick and Nova Scotia? Name the counties of this province that have coast line. Name those counties that have no coast line. How many counties has New



Brunswick? What natural outlet during summer for the products of the inland counties? Name the chief river basin in each of the counties having coast line. Name the principal tributaries of the St.

John. What is a river basin? Name and locate the capital of New Brunswick. Locate the seat of Municipal Government for each county. What is meant by Municipal Government? Name and locate three of the largest lakes of New Brunswick. Locate the important islands of New Brunswick, also the



Cathedral, Fredericton.

capes. Between what parallels of latitude is New Brunswick? Between what meridians of longitude? What is the area and population of New Brunswick?

Trace the course of the Canadian Pacific railway and its branches in the province, also Intercolonial railway, the Canada Eastern railway, the Central railway, the Shore line, the New Brunswick and P.E. Island railway.

St. John East. Just north is a fine cantilever railway bridge, and immediately beneath these bridges are the celebrated "Reversible Falls" of the St. John river.

St. John contains numerous saw-mills and factories, large pulp mills and foundries. Its chief buildings are its schools, custom house, post-office, hospital, Provincial lunatic asylum and grain elevators.

St. John has a fine harbor, open for navigation all the year round, and is the only harbor on the Atlantic coast north of Baltimore that is never obstructed by ice. This city is rapidly becoming the winter port of Canada, because through it is the shortest available route between Montreal and Liverpool.

In tonnage, St. John ranks fourth in the British empire. It is finely situated as a distributing centre, having quick rail and steamship communication with all the Maritime Provinces. St. John was nearly destroyed by fire June 20th, 1877, but quickly recovered from the disaster.

The real founders of this city were the United Empire Loyalists, who landed May 18th, 1783. The following year New Brunswick was made a separate province, and the first legislature met at St. John, then Parr Town, Jan. 3rd, 1786. St. John was incorporated May 18th, 1785, the oldest incorporated city in Canada.

Fredericton, situated on the right bank of the St. John, about eighty-four miles from its mouth, is the capital of New Brunswick. Its streets are broad, and shaded by beautiful elms. Here are the Parliament Buildings, Provincial University, Normal School, and Infantry School.

Fredericton is not only a beautiful city, but a stirring business centre of about 7,000. It possesses first-class railway and steamship communication with all parts of the Province.

This city, formerly St. Anne's Point, was founded about 1740, and received its present name about 1785, becoming the capital of the Province 1788.

Moncton, situated on the Petitcodiac, is an important railway centre, with manufactures of iron castings, leather, cotton, woollen goods, sugar and flour. One of its most interesting features is the "Bore," or "Tidal Wave," of the Petitcodiac river, which empties into the Bay of Fundy. The difference between high and low tide at this point, is from thirty to forty feet.

Moncton is growing rapidly, having at present a population of about 10,000.

St. Stephen, one of the prettiest towns of New Brunswick, is situated at the head of navigation on the St. Croix.

It is the centre of important lumber interests and has a population of about 3,000. Joining it on the south-west is Milltown, with over 2,000 inhabitants.

These twin towns are important centres of candy, cotton and soap manufactures.

St. Andrews, beautifully situated on a small peninsula between the St. Croix and Passamaquoddy Bay, is a popular summer resort.

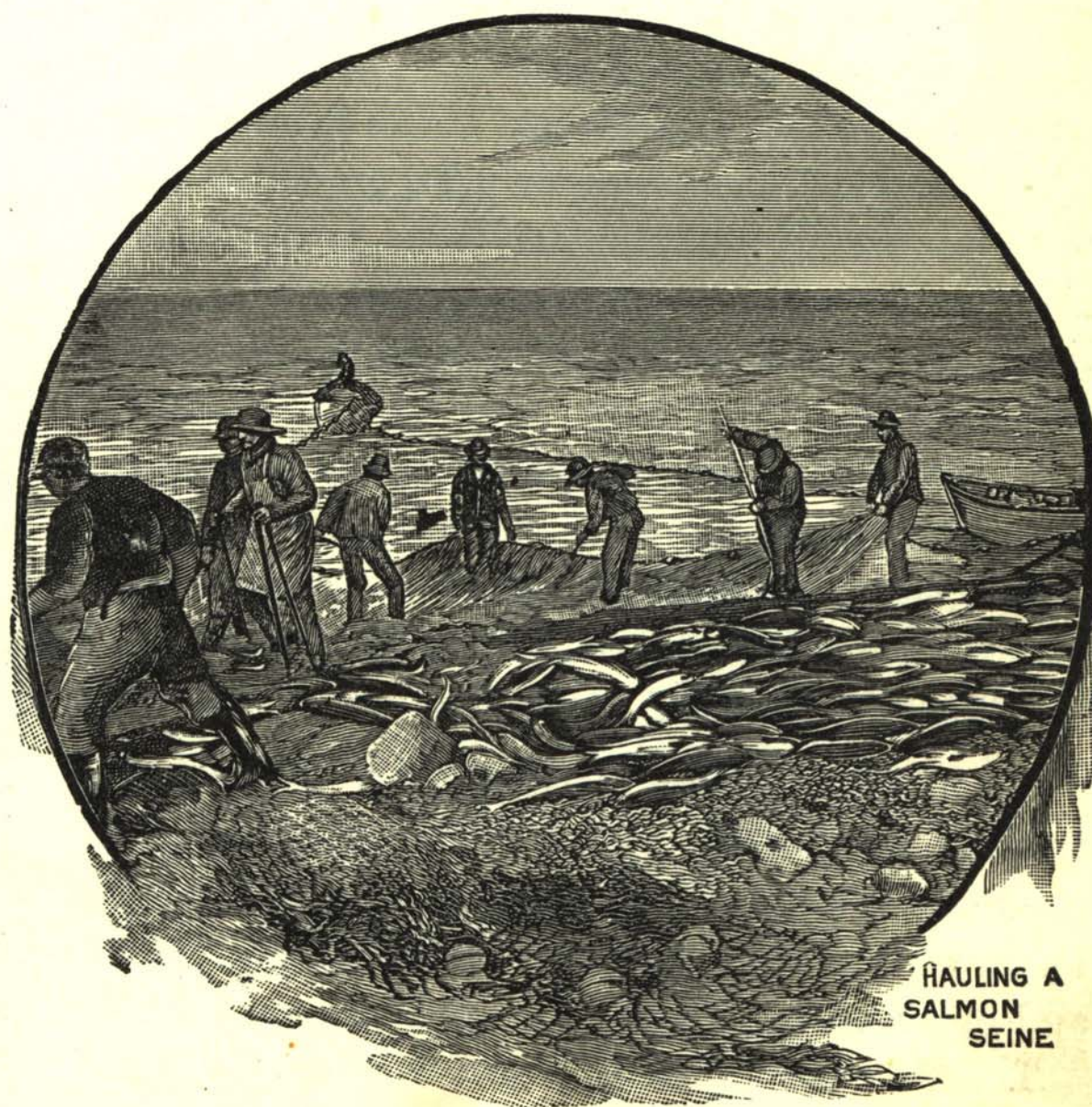
Woodstock, having a population of about 3,000, is situated on the right bank of the St. John, in the centre of a fine agricultural district. It has important wool, grain and lumber mills.

Chatham, population about 4,900, situated on the right bank of the Miramichi, has an excellent harbor, a large lumber trade, and several important manufactories.

Newcastle, population 2,500, six miles farther up the Miramichi, on the left bank, is at the head of deep water navigation. It carries on a large lumber trade.

Sackville is the home of Mount Allison University and Colleges. Near it are the Tantramar marshes.

Memramcook is the seat of a Roman Catholic University. The Penitentiary for the Maritime Provinces is at Dorchester. Marysville, on the Nashwaak, about two miles from Fredericton, is a centre of the lumber industry, and contains the largest cotton factory in



HAULING A
SALMON
SEINE



Canada. Dalhousie, Campbellton, Bathurst, Richibucto, Shediac, Sussex, Hillsboro', and Gagetown, are important towns, in the midst of magnificent natural scenery, and rapidly becoming favorite resorts for tourists.



Logging Scenes on the Miramichi.

Edmunston, in the County of Madawaska, about 265 miles from the mouth of the St. John river, is a town of considerable importance.

Soil and Products.—The soil, especially along the courses of the rivers, is very fertile. The uplands are a light loam, generally free from stone, and under good cultivation yield bountiful crops. Westmoreland, Kings, Queens, Sunbury and Carleton counties contain some of the finest agricultural tracts in the world.

All kinds of vegetables may be grown in great abundance. The hardier fruits, as apples, plums, cherries, currants, strawberries, etc., under intelligent and well-directed labor, yield highly profitable returns.

In many sections the uplands are well adapted for sheep-raising.

Few countries in the world are so well wooded as New Brunswick. Her forests of hard and soft woods are exceedingly valuable.

Animals.—Moose, caribou and deer roam through the forests. Wild ducks, geese and partridge are abundant. The streams abound in smelt, trout, salmon and other fish. The fox, bear, mink and musk-rat are found in great numbers.

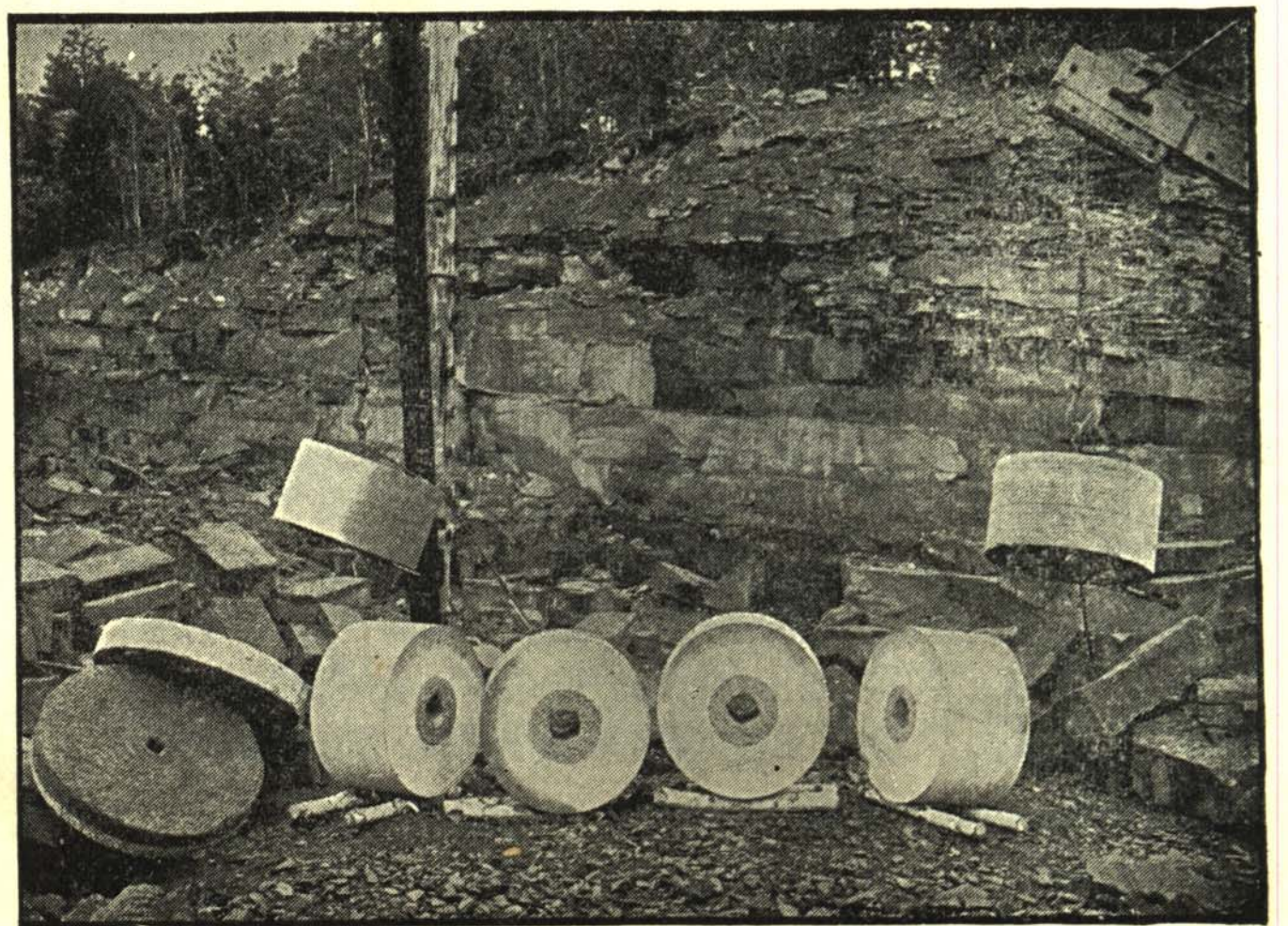
The fisheries of New Brunswick are of great value. The annual value of these fisheries is about

four million dollars, while the boats, vessels, and nets employed in the fisheries are valued at \$2,000,000. Cod, mackerel, shad, lobsters, herring, and haddock, form the chief part of the catch. The salmon and oysters of the Gulf Coast, and smelts of the Miramichi, have a wide reputation. Extensive oyster beds are found on the eastern coast. Lobsters are plentiful.

Laws for the protection of fish and game are rigidly enforced.

Minerals.—The mineral resources of New Brunswick are very important, and the Government is taking active steps for their development. At the head of Grand Lake is a valuable coal deposit. Graphite has been found to some extent in St. John County. In Albert are very extensive beds of pure white gypsum. Bituminous shale and Albertite are also found. On the Tobique are profitable deposits of gypsum, of reddish and chocolate colors. The granite quarries of

this province are of great value. The product of the red granite quarries of St. George has a rich, reddish color when polished. Limestone of most excellent quality is abundant in New Brunswick, and is largely quarried at St. John. Antimony is found at Lake George, in York County. Manganese is found in large quantities in Kings. New Brunswick is rich in quarries of freestone. Salt, iron and sulphur springs are found in different parts of the province.



Grindstones, French Fort Quarries, Newcastle, N.B.

Climate.—The climate of New Brunswick is healthful. It is less subject to extremes than that of Ontario or Quebec. In winter, the atmosphere is not as dry as it is farther north.

Summer and autumn are exceedingly pleasant, and vegetation is very rapid.

Industries.—The chief industries are farming, fishing, lumbering, mining and manufacturing.

The people of New Brunswick are making rapid advancement in agriculture through the adoption of schools for dairying, poultry and stock-raising.

The great lumber trade is still one of the first industries, giving constant employment to great numbers of men. Many are engaged in fishing. The Government keeps the lakes and streams well stocked with the best varieties. An ever-increasing number of the people find employment in the cotton and woollen mills, the boot and shoe factories, the foundries, sugar refineries, pulp mills and tanneries. Shipping and commerce engage the attention of a large portion of the population.

Communications.—New Brunswick is well supplied with first-class communication with all parts of Canada, the United States, and the great trading centres of the world.

Subsidized lines of steamers run from St. John to Liverpool, London, Manchester, Glasgow, Belfast and Dublin.

The chief railways are the following: The Intercolonial, belonging to the Federal Government, runs from St. John northerly through the entire length of the province, and connects it with all parts of Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, Ontario and the West; the Canada Eastern, running in a north-easterly direction, connects Fredericton with Miramichi Bay; the Canadian Pacific, extending west from St. John, gives communication with Northern and Western Canada, and all parts of the United States.

There are several minor lines of railways.

Fine steamers ply upon all the chief rivers, as well as between St. John and Nova Scotia, and Shediac and Prince Edward Island.

Education.—New Brunswick has a fine system of free, non-sectarian public schools, consisting of primary, intermediate and secondary schools.

At Fredericton are the Normal School and Provincial University, supported by the Government.

The chief denominational schools are Mount Allison University, maintained by the Methodists, and St. Joseph's College, belonging to the Roman Catholics.

Government.—The government of New Brunswick consists of the Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the Federal Government, and a House of Assembly of 46 members, elected for four years. The Legislative Council was abolished in 1892.

History.—New Brunswick was first settled by the French, about the year 1605. Along with Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, it was included in the grant made to De Monts in 1603, under the name of Acadia, a name supposed by some to have been derived from a Micmac word, "ā k ā d ē," indicating "abundance." In 1713, however, the French tried to restrict this name to Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick did not become an undisputed part of the British Empire until the conclusion of the Treaty of Paris, in 1763.

The first permanent European settlement in New Brunswick was made between the years 1632-35. At this date, Charles La Tour, having received a grant of this part of Acadia, had built a fort on what is now the harbor of St. John, probably on the west side, opposite Navy Island.

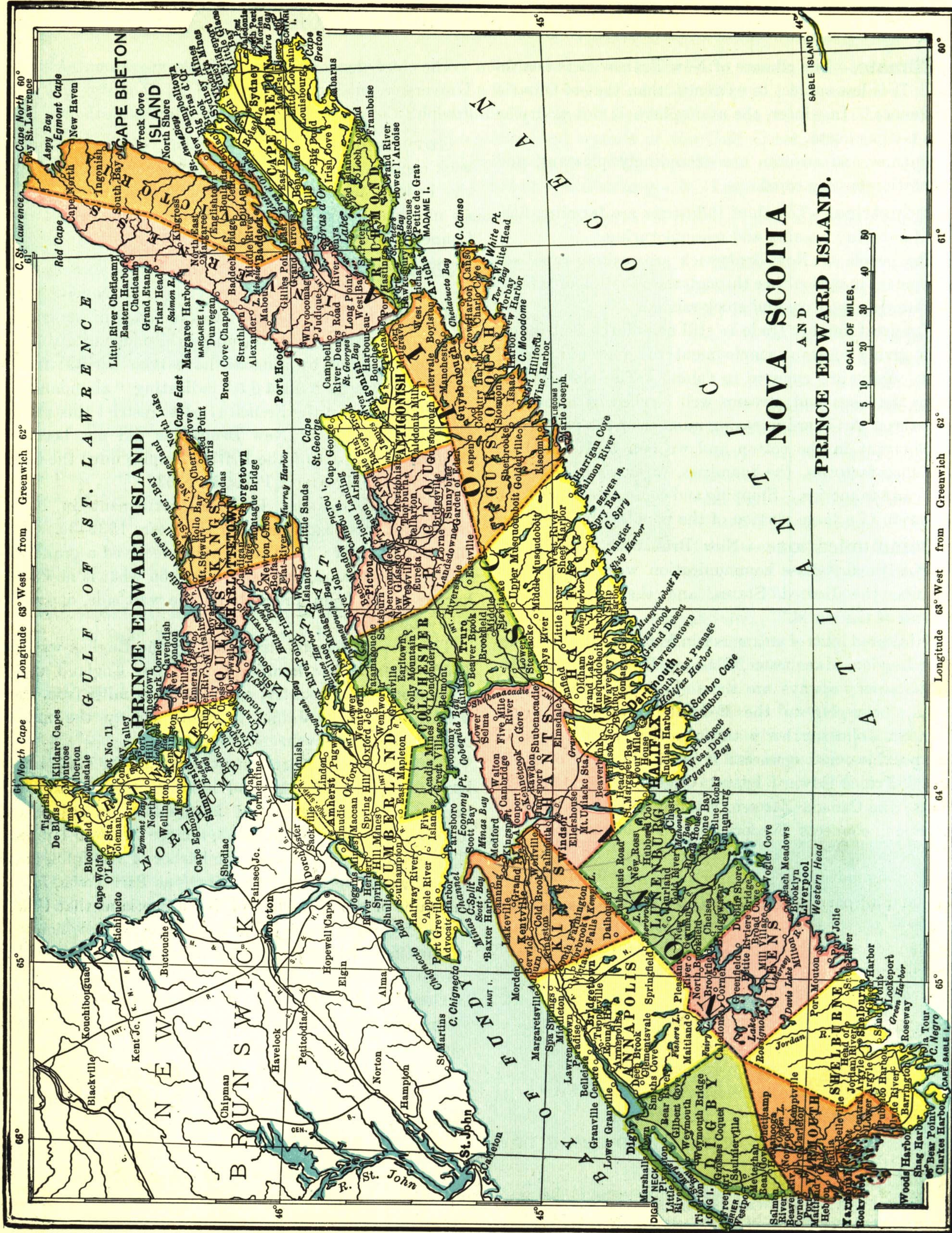
The first settlement attempted by the English was in 1763, when a few families from New England took possession of the country, about seventy miles from the mouth of the St. John. To this colony the name Mauderville was given.

A second English settlement was made in 1764, by a body of Scotch farmers and laborers. These made a home for themselves in the Miramichi and adjoining districts. On May 18th, 1783, a large body of United Empire Loyalists landed in the harbor of St. John, and formed a settlement known at first as Parr Town, from the name of the Governor of Nova Scotia at that time. In the following year, 1784, New Brunswick, which up to this time had formed part of Nova Scotia, was made a separate province, and placed under the administration of Governor Carlton. The first Legislature met at St. John, Jan. 3rd, 1786, but the seat of government was removed to Fredericton in 1788. New Brunswick remained a distinct province until 1867, when it united with Nova Scotia, Quebec and Ontario to form the Dominion of Canada.

CITIES AND CHIEF TOWNS OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

Population, 1901.											
St. John.....	40,711	Woodstock.....	2,984	Sussex.....	2,289	St. George.....	1,588	Dalhousie.....	912		
Moncton.....	9,026	St. Stephen.....	2,840	Milltown.....	2,044	Dorchester.....	1,246	Richibucto.....	760		
Fredericton.....	7,117	Campbellton.....	2,652	Bathurst.....	1,899	Shediac.....	1,174	Shippegan.....	436		
Chatham.....	4,868	Newcastle.....	2,507	Sackville.....	1,679	St. Andrews.....	1,064				

Locate the above cities and towns.



NOVA SCOTIA.

Map Studies.

What name do you apply to a body of land as nearly surrounded by water as Nova Scotia? What island forms part of the province? How is it separated from the mainland?

What separates Nova Scotia from Prince Edward Island? Give all the boundaries of Nova Scotia.

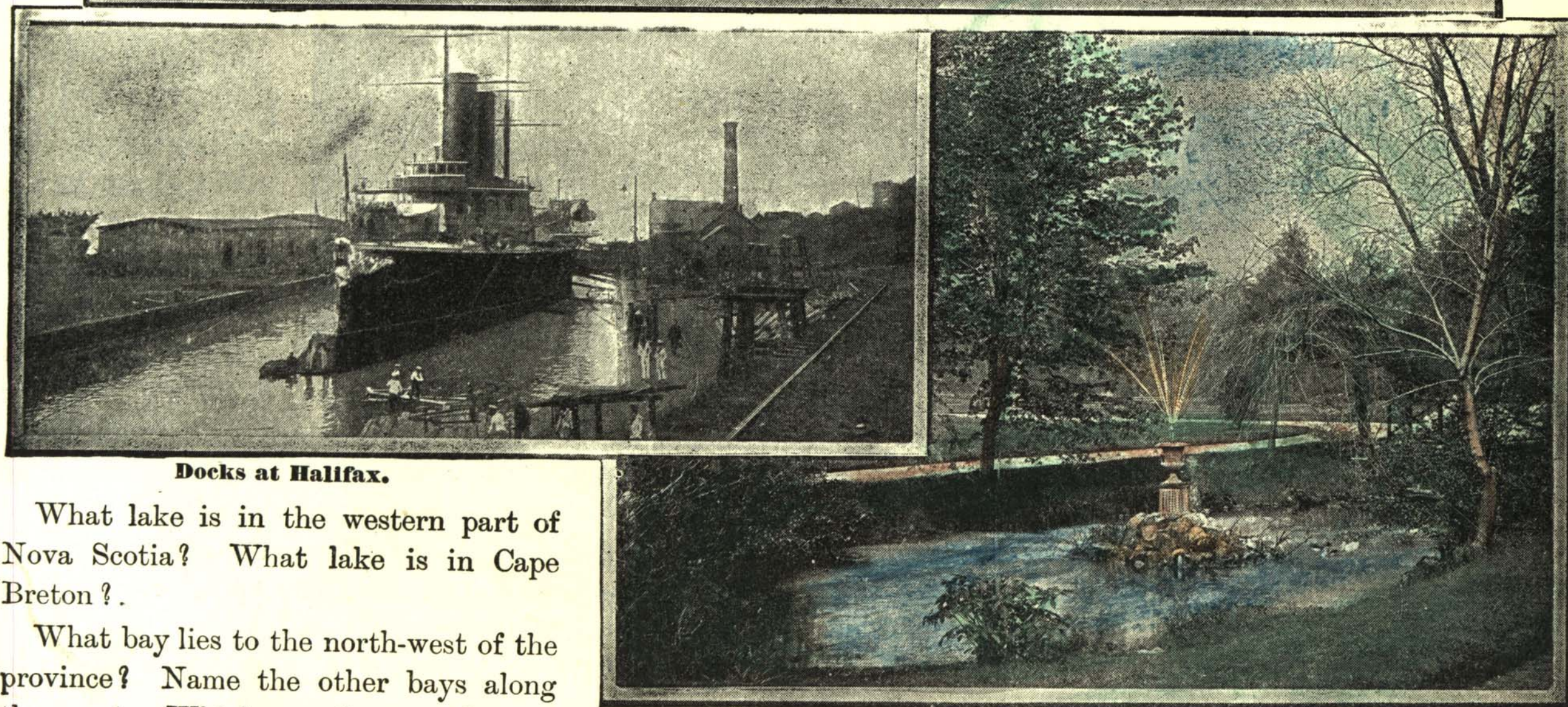
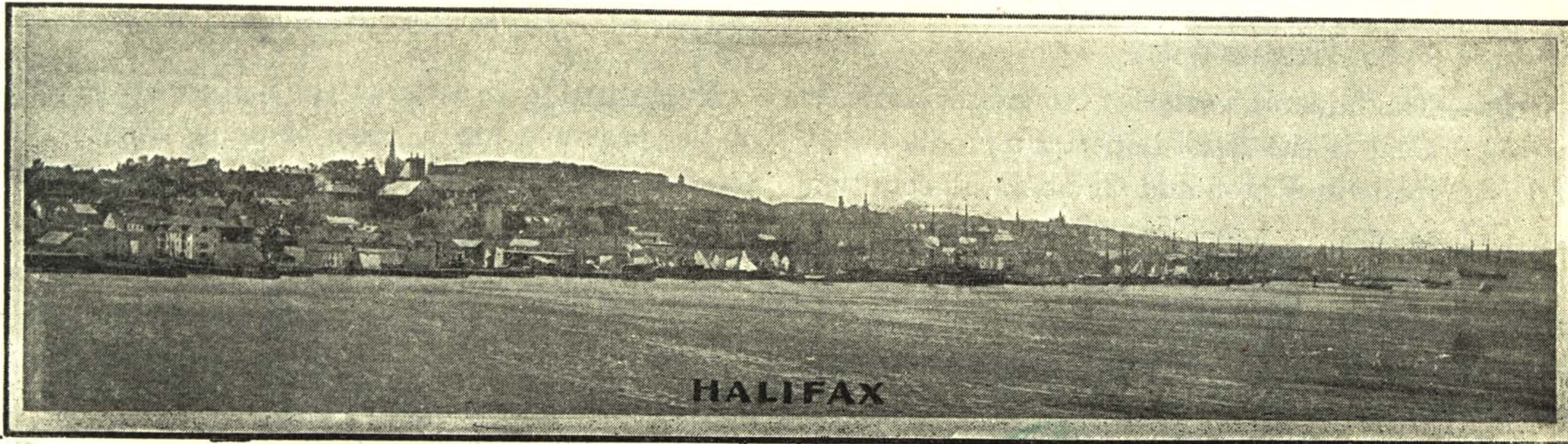
In what county is Halifax? Sydney? Truro? Spring Hill Mines?

What railways do you find in Nova Scotia? What places does each railway connect?

Are there any large rivers in Nova Scotia? Why?

Where does the Shubenacadie empty? The Mersey?

Physical Features.—The west and north-west



Docks at Halifax.

Public Gardens, Halifax.

What lake is in the western part of Nova Scotia? What lake is in Cape Breton?

What bay lies to the north-west of the province? Name the other bays along the coast. Which are the two largest bays in the province?

What cape is at the southern point of Nova Scotia? At the north-east corner of the mainland? At the northern point of Cape Breton?

What is the capital of the province? Where is it situated? What town is nearly opposite it? Locate the cities and towns in the list on page 108.

Name the counties in Cape Breton; on the Bay of Fundy; on Northumberland Strait; on the Atlantic.

are mountainous. The rest of the province is hilly, with very fertile valleys. The north end of Cape Breton is high and bold. The long coast-line is one of the most remarkable features of Nova Scotia. The coast is generally rocky.

Climate.—The climate is mild and healthful. The excellence of the climate is due to its being nearly surrounded by the ocean, and to the influence of the Gulf Stream.

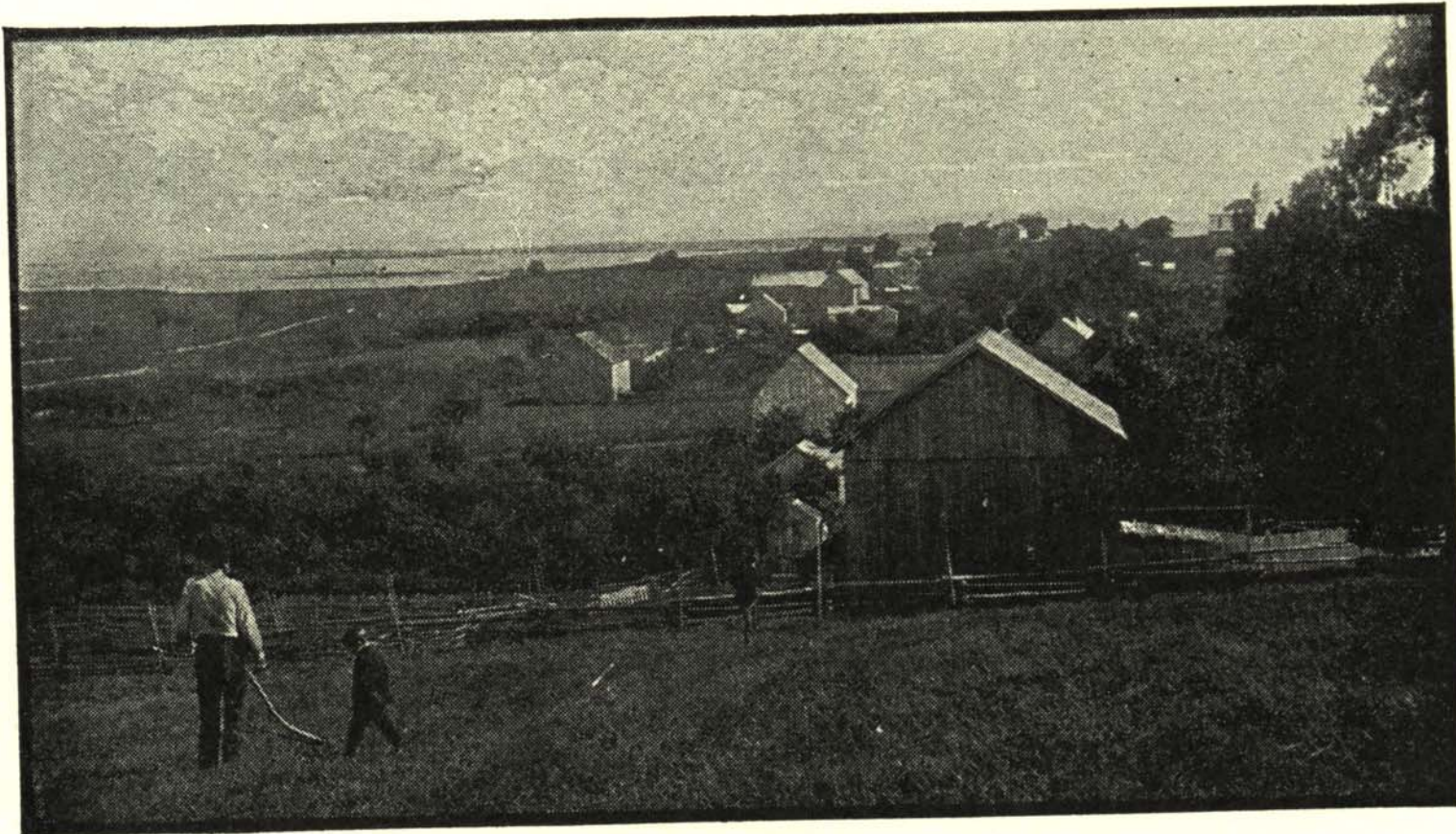
Population and Government.

The present province of Nova Scotia, called Acadia in early times, was the scene of the first permanent French settlement in North America. In 1713 Nova Scotia passed into the hands of the English.

Of the present population of the province, some trace their descent from the early French settlers, some are European immigrants of a later date, but many are descendants of the old New England colonists and of the United Empire Loyalists. The Government is the same in form as that of Quebec.

Industries.

Mining.—The mineral wealth of Nova Scotia is vast and varied. Coal is the most important product. It is found principally in Pictou and Cumberland counties, and in the eastern part of Cape Breton. The Pictou coalfields are characterized by seams of great thickness, and have been worked for many years. The gold mines are situated chiefly along the Atlantic slope of the peninsula, the gold being obtained from quartz ore of a comparatively low grade. Gypsum, iron, manganese, copper, building stone, and other minerals, are found in considerable quantities.



Grand Pré, N.S.

Fishing.—The fisheries of Nova Scotia are of very great importance. They afford occupation to nearly thirty thousand men, employing over 14,000 boats and vessels. The value of the fish obtained is about one-third of that of the whole Canadian product. The chief varieties are cod, mackerel, lobsters, herring, and haddock. Nova Scotia has a remarkably extensive coast-line, and fine harbors. These advantages account for her prominence in the fishing and shipping industries.

Agriculture.—The soil, especially in the valleys, is very productive, except near the coast. Hay, oats, and potatoes are the largest crops. Nova Scotia exports more apples than any other province, except Ontario. Many cattle are raised.

Chief Towns and Cities.

Halifax, the capital of the province, is its only city. It was founded in 1749, by the British government, as a means of securing the hold of Britain upon Acadia. It has a splendid harbor, open all the year round, and possesses one of the finest dry-docks in the world. It has an important shipping trade, doing a large business with the West Indies. It is one of the most effectively fortified cities in Canada, and is occupied by a strong garrison of Imperial troops. It is also the chief station of the British North Atlantic Squadron. Halifax is the eastern terminus of the Intercolonial Railway.

Yarmouth, situated at the south-western extremity of the province, has a large shipping trade. Its registered tonnage in 1898 was 39,882. Its lumbering and fishing industries are very extensive. Important steamship lines ply between Yarmouth and Boston.

Truro is the seat of the Provincial Normal School.

Windsor had a registered tonnage of 83,547 in 1898 ranking next to Montreal.

Pictou and New Glasgow, on

Northumberland strait, are very busy commercial towns. They are in the heart of the coal regions, and besides their mining industries they have large shipping interests and are rapidly developing their manufactures.

Sydney is the chief town of Cape Breton. It is noted for its coal trade.

Annapolis, on Annapolis basin, is the oldest town in Nova Scotia, and is full of historic interest. It was the Port Royal founded by Champlain; but its name was changed when the English finally took possession of Acadia.

Liverpool and Lunenburg, situated on the Atlantic coast between Halifax and Yarmouth, are of importance as lumbering and fishing centres. They carry on a large trade with the West Indies.

Cities and Chief Towns of Nova Scotia.

Population, 1901.

Halifax.....	40,832	Amherst.....	4,963	Windsor.....	3,398
Sydney.....	9,909	Dartmouth.....	4,806	Pictou.....	3,235
Yarmouth.....	6,430	New Glasgow ..	4,447	Lunenburg.....	2,916
Truro.....	5,993	Springhill.....	3,430	Liverpool.....	1,937

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

Map Studies.

What separates Prince Edward Island from New Brunswick? What body of water lies to the north of the island?

What bay is north of Prince Edward Island? What one on the east? Name three on the south-west.

What is the capital of the province? Where is it situated? Name three other important towns.

Name the counties of Prince Edward Island. In which county is the capital?

Draw a map of the island, and mark on it the railway and the most important towns on its route.

Fifteen of these named councillors are elected by property voters, and the other fifteen by the franchise voters.

Industries and Manufactures.

Agriculture, in its different branches, furnishes the chief occupation of the people. Wheat, oats, barley, potatoes and turnips are the principal crops. Much attention is paid to the raising of superior breeds of horses, cattle, sheep and pigs.

Prince Edward Island fisheries are the best in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The total number of men engaged in the trade is about four thousand. Mackerel, cod,

oysters and lobsters form the bulk of the product.

Manufactures are carried on only to a small extent for the supply of local markets.

Chief Towns.

Charlottetown, the capital and largest town, is situated on the south side of the island, at the

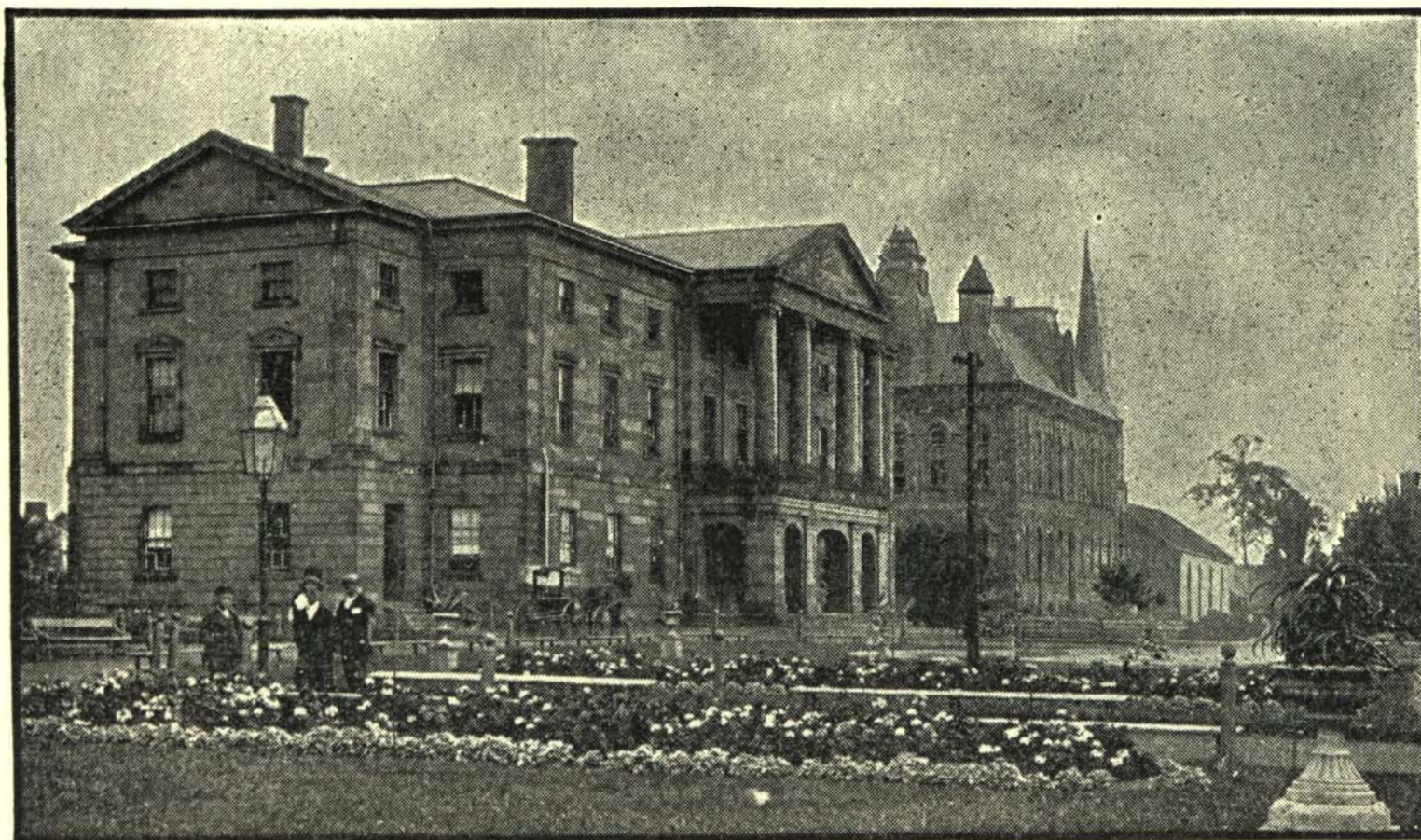
History.—Prince Edward Island was originally part of the French territories known as Acadia, and then bore the name of Isle St. Jean. It was given its present name about a hundred years ago in compliment to Prince Edward, Duke of Kent, father of Queen Victoria, who was at that time commander of the forces at Halifax.

Physical Features.—The province is undulating, but has only slight elevations. The long coast-line is its most striking feature.

Soil and Climate.—The soil is light but kindly, and the climate moderate and healthful.

People.—Most of the people are native born, the majority of them being of Scottish descent. Of the remainder, some are English, some are Irish, and still others descendants of the original French settlers.

Government.—There is but one "house," consisting of thirty members, styled "The Legislative Assembly."



Parliament Buildings, P.E.I.

mouth of a long inlet known as Hillsborough River. It has a splendid harbor, and does a thriving trade. It is the chief distributing centre for the whole province.

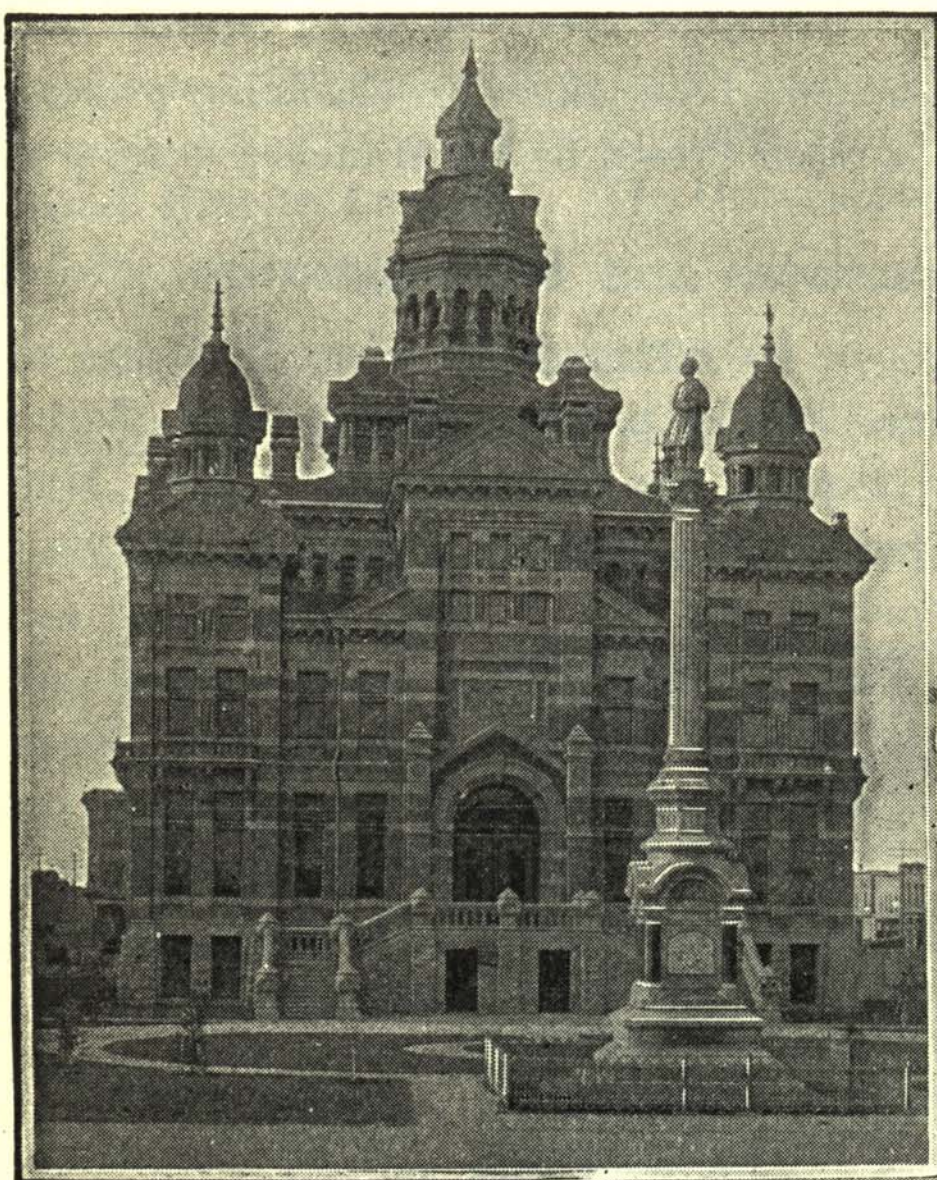
Summerside, on Bedeque bay, has an excellent harbor, and carries on a large trade with New Brunswick, just across the strait. The province is famous for its oysters, and Summerside is the centre of the oyster industry.

Cities and Towns of Prince Edward Island.

Population, 1901.

Charlottetown...	12,080	Summerside.....	2,875
Georgetown.....	1,123.		

MANITOBA



City Hall, Winnipeg.

Map Studies.

What Districts lie to the north and west of Manitoba? What province to the east? What country to the south?

What is the name of the largest lake in Manitoba?

What large river flows into it from the south? What important tributaries has this river? What river flows into the same lake from the north-west? (See map, page 72.) What other lakes are there in Manitoba?

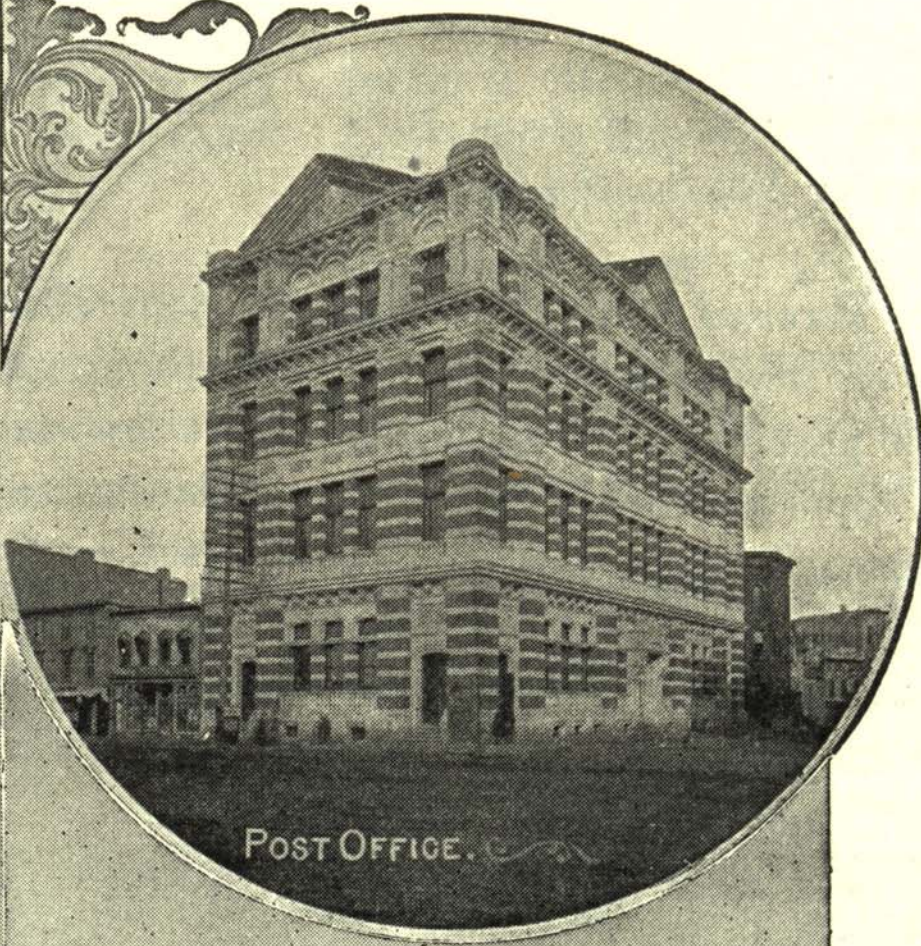
Where is Winnipeg situated? Portage la Prairie? Brandon?

Locate on the map—Emerson, Rapid City, Minnedosa, Morris, Birtle, Carman, Deloraine, Stonewall, Carberry, Virden, Morden, Manitou.

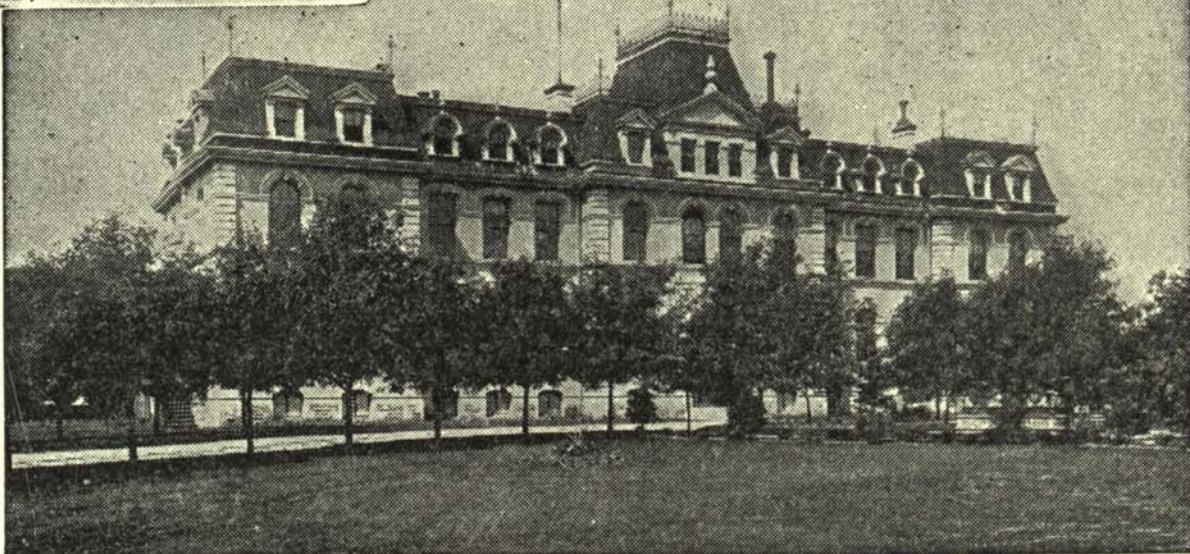
Trace the railways in Manitoba and mark the most important towns on them. Name the railways that enter Winnipeg.

Why is the site of Winnipeg a good place for a great city?

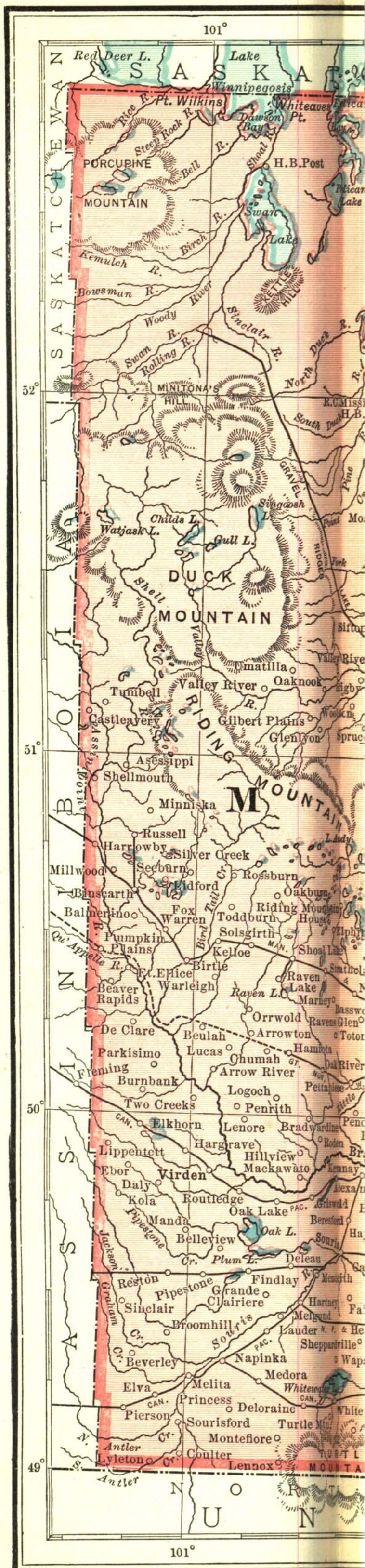
History.—In 1812 Lord Selkirk purchased from the Hudson's Bay Company a vast tract of land on the Red River, and settled thereon a band of Scotch and Irish pioneers. It was called Assiniboia, and was governed by the Hudson's Bay Company, from Fort Garry. When, after Confederation, the Dominion Government purchased the North-west from the Hudson's Bay Company, this district was erected into a new province



POST OFFICE.



Parliament Buildings, Winnipeg.





under the name of Manitoba (1870). Under the care of the Canadian government immigration flowed in rapidly, the city of Winnipeg rose suddenly at the junction of the Assiniboine with the Red River, and Manitoba grew in a few years to be an influential and prosperous province.

Size and Position.—Manitoba is the central one of the seven provinces of the Dominion of Canada. It is situated near the centre of the North American continent, being midway between the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans. It is called the "prairie province." It is larger than Wales, Ireland and Scotland combined, having an area of about 74,000 square miles.

Physical Features.—Manitoba consists chiefly of rich, level prairie land. There are elevated districts in the south-west, the west, the north, and especially the north-eastern portion of the province. The northern and north-eastern parts have many lakes. The north-east is well supplied with timber.

Climate.—The summers are warm and very pleasant; the winters are severe. Owing to the dryness of the air, the low temperature in winter is not so severe in its effects as in places where there is more moisture. The climate is healthful and invigorating.

Soil.—The soil of Manitoba is for the most part a rich deep mould or loam, especially adapted to wheat-growing. Manitoba wheat is of the finest quality. Other grain, and root-crops, give astonishing yields on this inexhaustible soil, growing with wonderful luxuriance through the hot summer.

People.—The population of the province came chiefly from Great Britain and eastern Canada. The French element is also strong. The remainder of the population is made up of immigrants from various countries of northern and central Europe. There are interesting colonies from Russia and Iceland.

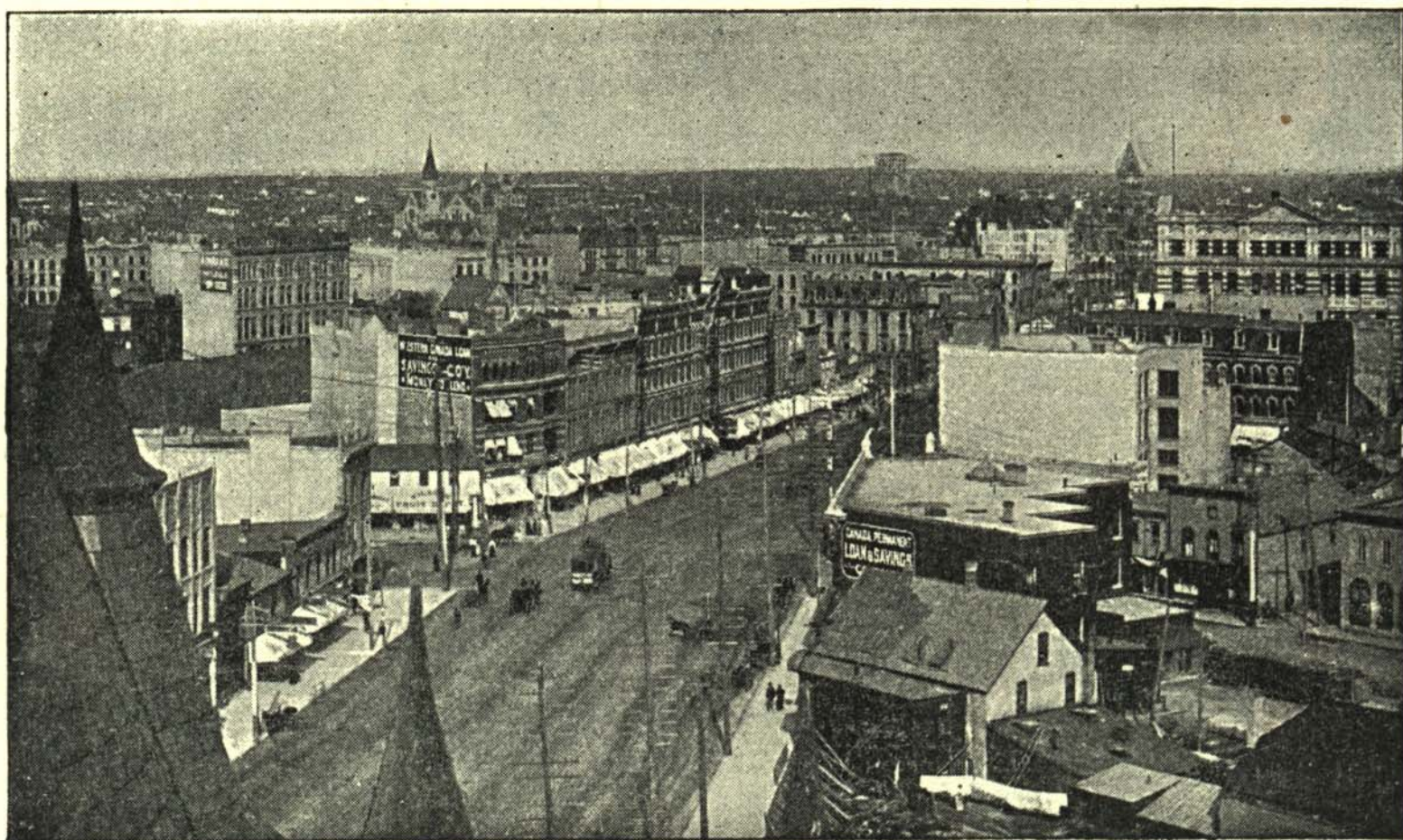
Government.—The Government is similar to that of Ontario, there being only one Chamber in the Legislature.

Occupations of the People.—The wealth of Manitoba lies in its fertile and easily tilled soil, so that agriculture is now, and always will be, the most important industry. In addition to wheat, oats, barley and potatoes, which are the principal field crops, the soil and climatic conditions are very favorable for the growth of flax and hemp. Much attention is given to stock-raising and dairy-farming.

The lakes of the province abound in fish, and the annual product of the fisheries is already considerable. The people give little thought, as yet, to manufactures. Lumbering is carried on to some extent in the northern and eastern sections, for the supply of local needs. The chief export of Manitoba is wheat.

Cities and Chief Towns.

Winnipeg, situated at the junction of the Assiniboine and the Red River, is the capital of Manitoba, and the chief centre of distribution for all north-western Canada. It is the largest city in the province, and the most important as regards its literary, educational, and manufacturing interests. It is a great railway centre, and has fine means of communication by water.



Winnipeg.

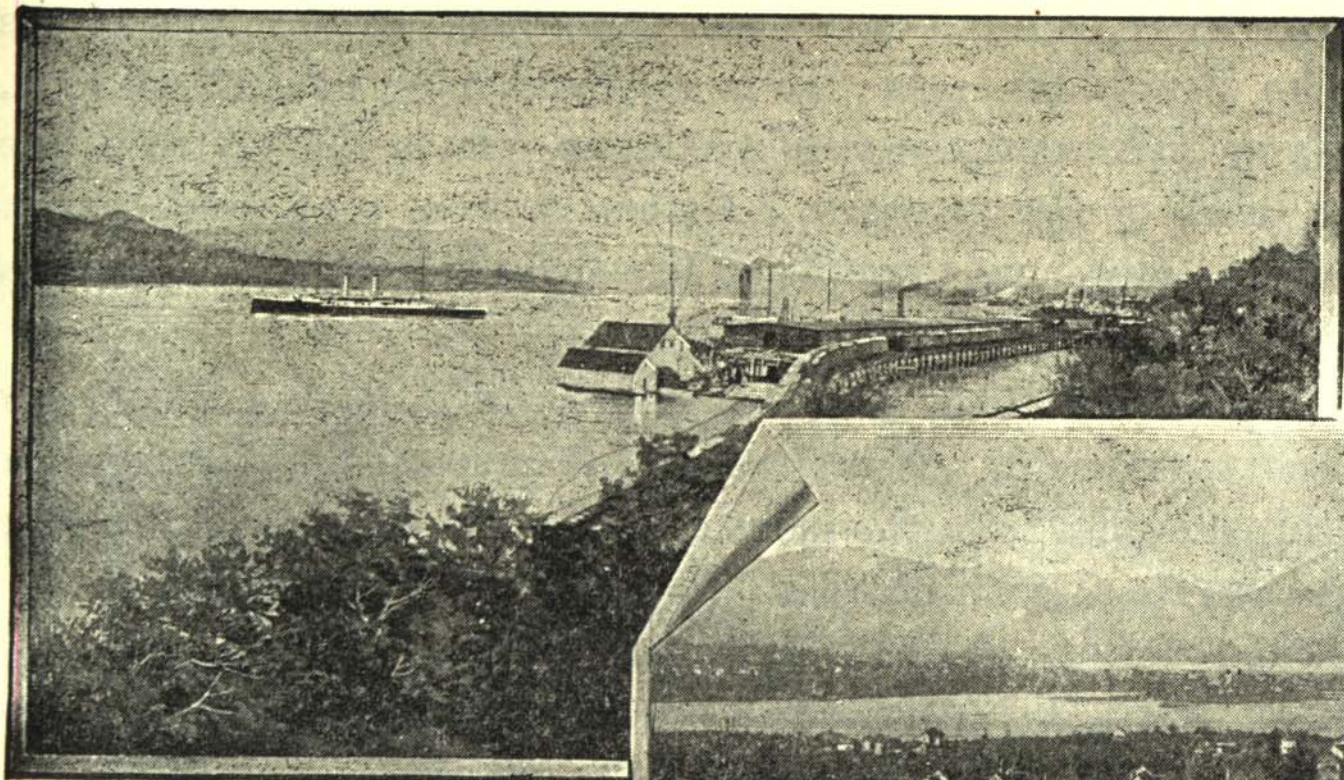
From its situation it bids fair to be to the north-west what Montreal is to the east.

Brandon on the main line of the C. P. R., one hundred and thirty-three miles west of Winnipeg, has great grain elevators, and does a large export trade in wheat.

Portage la Prairie is on the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, fifty-six miles west of Winnipeg. It is the centre of an important agricultural district and has fine flour mills.

Cities and Towns of Manitoba.

Population, 1906.			
Winnipeg	90,204	Selkirk	2,701
Brandon	10,411	St. Boniface	5,119
Portage la Prairie. .	4,985	Morden	1,438



Water-front, Vancouver, B.C.



Vancouver, B.C.

Resources.—In regard to both variety and volume, the resources of British Columbia are among the richest in Canada. The province has immense areas of mineral wealth, forests of great extent and value, coast waters and streams abounding in fish, and many large districts well adapted for agriculture and grazing.

Mines.—The minerals of most importance are gold and coal. The gold mines are among the most valuable in the world. Immense quantities of gold have been obtained by washing gravel from the beds of the Fraser and its tributaries. Very rich mines are operated in the Kootenay region, the largest of which are at Rossland, and in Cariboo, Omineca, and the Boundary Country. Very rich coal mines are found in the south-eastern part of the province, and on Vancouver Island. Valuable deposits of silver, lead, and copper are also located in different parts of the province.

Lumber.—The most important forest tree is the Douglas fir, which on the coast frequently attains a height of from two to three hundred feet, with a diameter of from eight to ten feet. It is only one, however, of the many splendid trees which make the forests of British Columbia famous throughout the world. Lumbering is a great and growing industry along the coast.

Fisheries.—The abundance of fish in the waters of her rivers and coast supplies a large part of British Columbia's trade. Of these fish, the most valuable is the Salmon, which frequents the waters of the Fraser and Columbia in astonishing numbers. Other important varieties are halibut, sturgeon,

herring, trout, and cod. Throughout the province there are numerous canneries, which annually ship millions of cans of salmon. The coast Indians are largely engaged in this industry.

Agriculture.—In the southern parts and along the Pacific are situated the most important agricultural districts, but there are large areas in the more northerly interior which will support a farming population. Agriculture is yearly engaging more and more attention throughout the province. Wheat, barley, oats and peas are the principal grain crops. Fruit is also grown to some extent, and is cer-

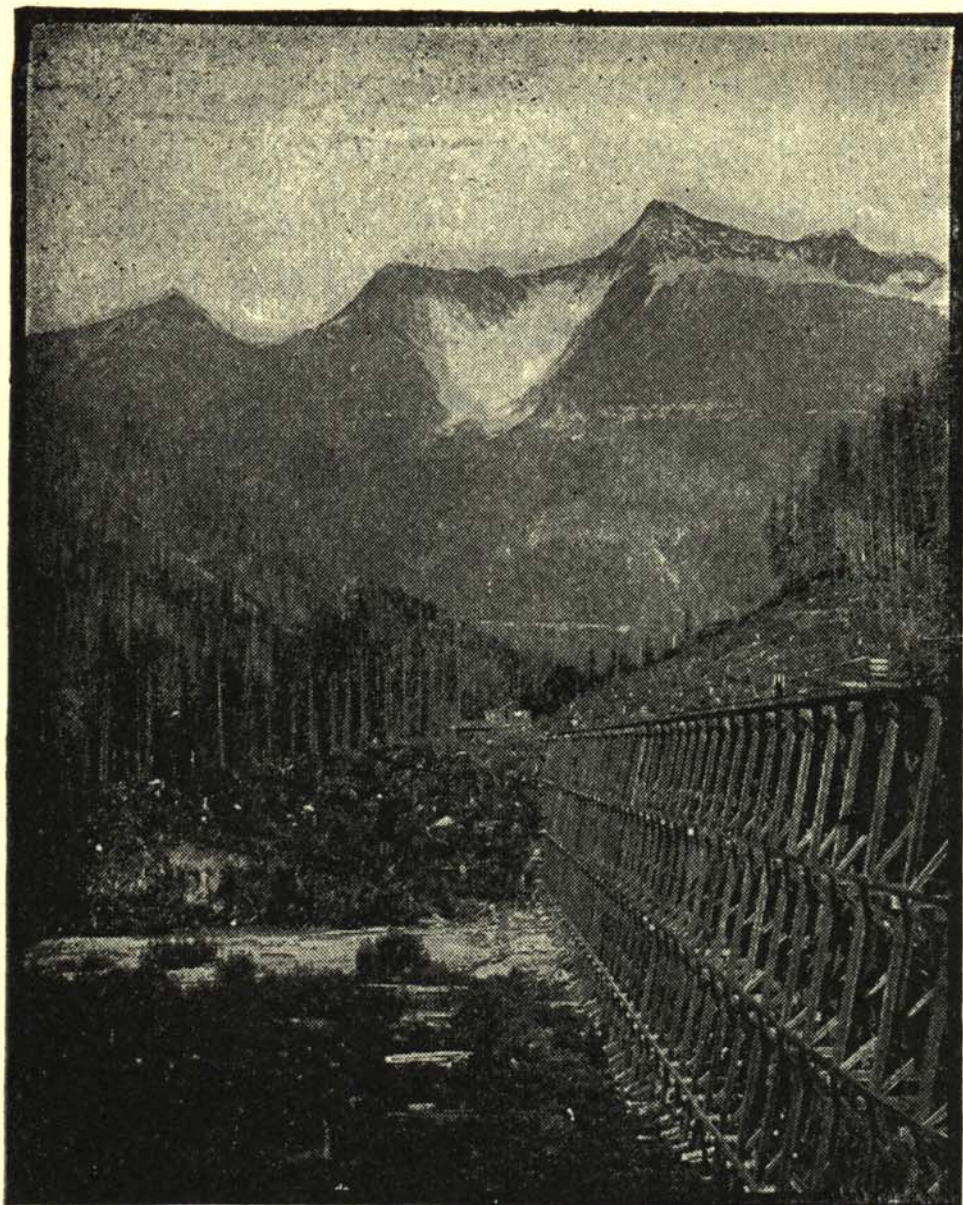
tain to become an important crop owing to the suitability of the climate.

Cities and Chief Towns.

Victoria, the capital of British Columbia, has a situation of great beauty on a small but excellent harbor, at the south-eastern extremity of Vancouver Island. In early times it was a post of the Hudson's Bay Company, and was then called Fort Victoria. This city is one of the largest in the province, has numerous fine buildings, parks, and gardens, and is the centre of important business and shipping interests.



Rossland, B.C.



"The Loop," in the Selkirks, B.C.

Vancouver, on Burrard Inlet, is the western terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway. It is surrounded by a fertile country, and enjoys an exceptionally mild climate. It is the centre of the lumber trade of the province. Extensive iron, soap, and cement works are located here, in addition to a sugar refinery, and numerous factories for canning fish.

New Westminster was founded in 1858, during the Fraser river gold excitement. It is situated on the north bank of the river about fifteen miles from the mouth. The salmon trade and lumber business are its chief industries.

Nanaimo.—North of Victoria, and on the east coast of Vancouver Island, is situated the thriving town of Nanaimo, which depends largely on its coal mines for its support.

Kamloops and **Revelstoke** are mining towns on the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and **Nelson**, **Rossland**, **Kaslo** and **Sandon** are mining towns in Kootenay.

Cities and Chief Towns of British Columbia.

Population, 1906.					
Vancouver.....	55,000	Nelson.....	6,000	Kamloops.....	2,200
Victoria.....	25,000	Rossland.....	5,000	Greenwood.....	2,000
New Westminster...	6,500	Fernie.....	4,000	Trail.....	1,800
Nanaimo.....	6,000	Revelstoke.....	3,200	Kaslo.....	1,500

SASKATCHEWAN.

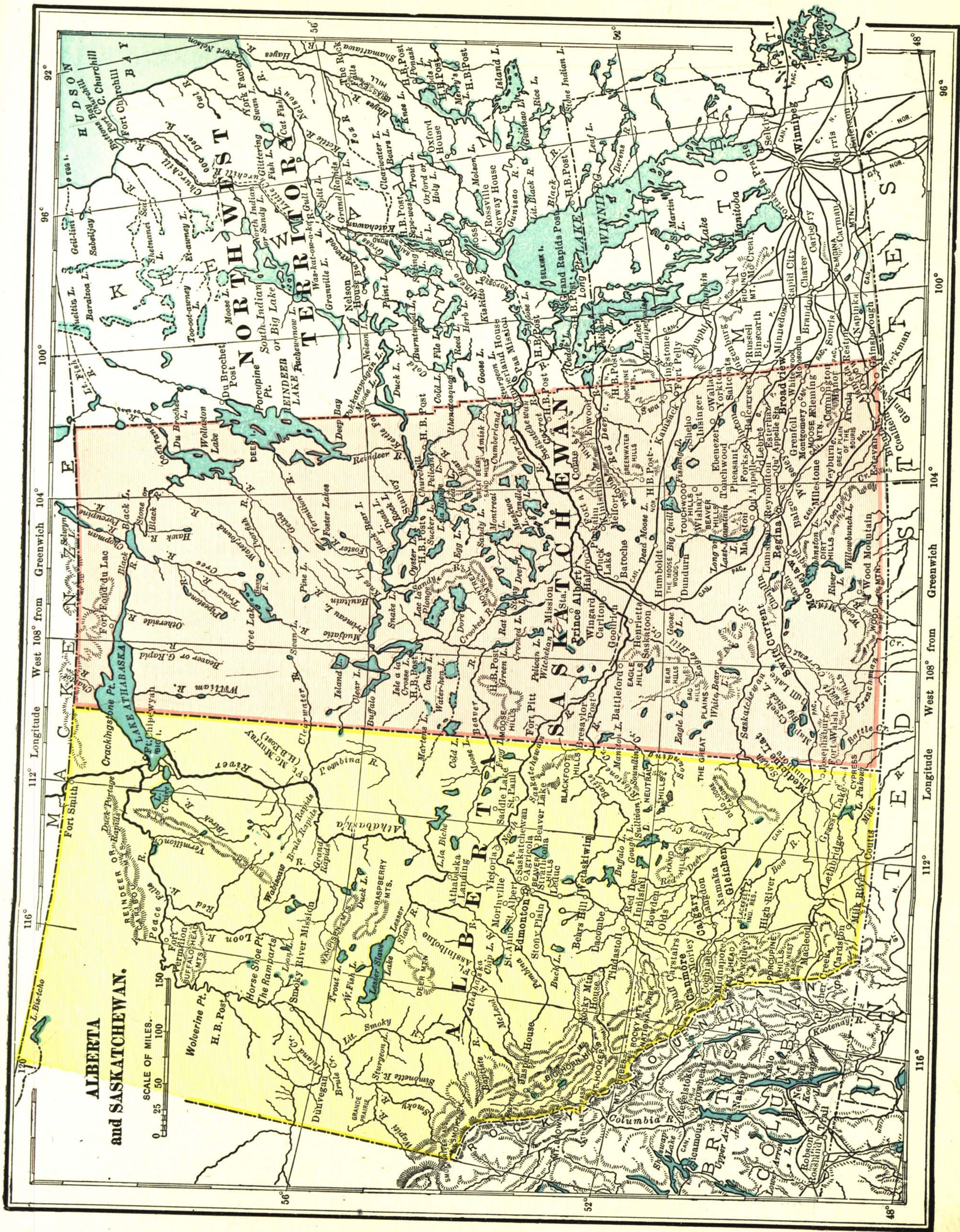
Position and Extent.—Saskatchewan occupies part of the Great Central Plain and lies between Manitoba and the North-West Territory on the east and Alberta on the west. It stretches from the international boundary line on the south to the 60th parallel on the north, a distance of more than 750 miles. In width it varies from about 400 miles at the south to about 250 miles at the north. At the taking of the last census (1906) the population was 257,763.

Physical Features.—The greater part of the province lies in the second prairie steppe. This steppe is bounded on the east by a line of hills which extend into the province from Manitoba. Some of the more important of these are the Pembina, Riding, Duck, Porcupine and Pasquia Mountains. On the west is another line almost parallel to the first and consisting of the Dirt Hills, Vermilion Hills, The Coteau, Bear Hills and Eagle Hills. The average width of this steppe is about 250 miles and it has an average altitude of about 1,600 feet. The surface is more rolling than the first steppe and it is dotted with many lakes. Some of these such as Last Mountain Lake and the Qu'Appelle Lakes in the south, and Lake Montreal

and Lake La Ronge in the north, are extensive and picturesque sheets of fresh water. Except a strip along the western part where the rainfall is deficient, the soil is, generally speaking, very fertile and well adapted for grain-growing and mixed farming. The 53rd parallel marks approximately the boundary line between the wooded country to the north and the open and bluff prairie to the south.

Climate.—Situated as it is in the interior, the climate is somewhat subject to extremes of heat and cold. For a short period in summer the days are hot but the evenings are always cool and pleasant. The winters are generally speaking, steady and cold. The precipitation varies considerably in different parts, being as a rule less in the south and west. The air is dry and bracing, and during the greater part of the year the days are bright and sunny.

Resources and Industries.—Grain-growing and dairying are the chief industries in the south and central parts of the province. In the south-west and along the Saskatchewan, ranching is an important industry. In the Souris district in the south-eastern part of the province, coal is mined in paying quantities.



North of the north branch of the Saskatchewan lumbering is extensively carried on. The fishing and fur industries of the north are also of considerable importance.

Government.—The Legislature consists of a Lieutenant-Governor and one House called the Legislative Assembly. The Assembly consists at present of twenty-five members and continues for four years. The Lieutenant-Governor is advised by an Executive Council composed of four members.

Cities.

Regina, the capital, is on the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway. It is surrounded by a good agricultural country and is rapidly taking its place as one of the leading cities of the west. It is the western terminus for the Arcola and Moose Mountain section of the C.P.R. and for the Prince Albert branch of the Canadian Northern. The Grand Trunk and Canadian Northern have completed surveys into the city. It has already adopted an extensive scheme of public improvements and is one of the main distributing points in the province.

Moose Jaw is an important railway centre. It is on the main line of the C.P.R. and is the western terminus of the Portal section. It is in the centre of one of the finest wheat areas in the west. It is a busy and prosperous city.

Prince Albert is situated on the North Saskatchewan and is the northern terminus of the Regina and Prince Albert branch of the Canadian Northern. It is also the western terminus of the northern section of the Canadian Northern. It has extensive lumbering and fishing industries.

Saskatoon is on the South Saskatchewan and is the leading point on the Regina and Prince Albert branch of the Canadian Northern. The Grand Trunk Pacific has surveyed through the city, and the Pheasant Hills section of the C.P.R. from Kirkella to Saskatoon is rapidly nearing completion.

Chief Towns.

Moosomin, **Yorkton** and **Indian Head** are three growing and substantial towns. They are surrounded by fine agricultural country and are important centres for the shipping of wheat.

Broadview and **Swift Current** are important divisional centres on the C.P.R.

Maple Creek is on the main line of the C.P.R. and is one of the most important ranching centres in the province.

Other important centres are **Battleford**, **Rosthern**, **Wolseley**, **North Battleford**, **Estevan**, **Qu'Appelle**, **Arcola**, **Oxbow**, **Davidson** and **Hanley**.

ALBERTA.

Position and Size.—Alberta lies between the international boundary line on the south and the 60th parallel on the north, and between the summit of the Rocky Mountains and the 120th meridian on the west, and the 110th meridian on the east. It is about 750 miles in length with a breadth varying from 200 miles at the south to nearly 400 miles at the 50th parallel. Its area is estimated at 253,450 square miles.

Physical Features.—The southern portion of this province occupies the third prairie steppe. This steppe has an average elevation of 3,000 feet and extends from the international boundary to the North Saskatchewan River. Its surface is much diversified. The foothills of the Rockies extend from the western border for fifty miles into the province. Coulees run for long distances into the prairie, and the river channels are very deep.

Half of the main ridge of the Rockies lies within the

province along part of its boundary. The mountains are much higher in the south than they are in the north, and are visible for over one hundred miles. The principal peaks in Alberta are Mount Murchison, Mount Hooker and Mount Brown. The chief passes are North Kootenay, Yellow Head, Pine River, Peace River, Crow's Nest and Kicking Horse. The last two are traversed by lines of the C.P.R. at elevations of 5,500 and 5,300 feet, respectively.

The third prairie steppe is drained principally by the north and south branches of the Saskatchewan, but the Milk River, which drains a small area in the south, is a tributary of the Missouri. The lakes in the southern part of the province are not important.

The surface of the northern part of the province is an undulating plain diversified by small ranges of hills. Timber is found around the upper waters of the Saskatchewan and Athabasca, while farther north the country

is partly open and partly covered with light scrub. The country adjacent to the Peace River is open prairie and is admirably suited to agriculture.

The northern part of the province is drained by the Peace and Athabasca Rivers. Numerous large lakes, among which are the Lesser Slave, Clear and Athabasca, form part of the drainage system.

Climate.—The climate of Alberta is more moderate than that of Saskatchewan owing to the influence of the chinook winds which make possible the grazing of live-stock throughout the year. The rainfall is not excessive but is sufficient for successful agriculture in all parts of the province. In the southern part of the province evaporation is rapid owing to the dry winds, and special care is taken by what is called the "dry farming" method to conserve soil moisture.

Resources.—In southern Alberta, which was formerly devoted to ranching, the land is being rapidly brought under cultivation. The chief crops are spring and winter wheat, oats, barley, flax, alfalfa, and all classes of roots, vegetables and small fruits. The sugar-beet is an important crop. Irrigation systems are in operation at Lethbridge, Calgary and Medicine Hat. The central and northern portions of the province are devoted to mixed farming. Live-stock raising and dairying are important in these sections.

Lumbering is carried on around the upper waters of the North Saskatchewan and Athabasca.

The chief mineral found is coal, and the principal mining centres are Lethbridge, Taber, Coleman, Frank, Bankhead, Canmore, Edmonton, Strathcona and Morinville. Gold in paying quantities is found along the Peace and North Saskatchewan Rivers. Oil is found in the southern part of the province, and also at Morinville and along the Athabasca River.

Government.—The government is similar to that of Ontario, Manitoba and Saskatchewan.

Chief Centres.

There are six incorporated cities in the province.

Edmonton, the capital, is situated on the north bank of the North Saskatchewan River. It is surrounded by a rich agricultural district, has important mercantile and manufacturing interests, and is on three lines of railway, for two of which it has large terminal facilities.

Calgary, at the junction of the Bow and Elbow Rivers, is an important manufacturing centre and has large wholesale interests. It is on the main line of the

C.P.R., and is the headquarters of the company's irrigation system.

Medicine Hat, on the South Saskatchewan and near the junction of the main line and Crow's Nest division of the C.P.R., is a ranching, agricultural and railway centre. It has large supplies of natural gas.

Lethbridge, on the Belly River, is the chief mining centre of the province. It has an irrigation system, is on the Crow's Nest Railway, and has connection with the Great Northern.



Banff National Park, Alberta.

Strathcona, on the south bank of the North Saskatchewan, is surrounded by excellent farming land, is the site of the provincial university, and has growing railway interests.

Wetaskiwin is in a rich farming area and has large elevator interests.

The most important towns are **Cardston**, **Raymond**, **McLeod**, **High River**, **Red Deer**, **Lacombe**, **Stettler**, **Camrose**, **Fort Saskatchewan**, **Vegreville**, and **Vermilion**. At **Banff** is the Canadian National Park.

Population of Chief Centres, 1906.

Edmonton.....	11,163	Raymond.....	1,568
Calgary.....	11,967	Red Deer.....	1,418
Medicine Hat..	3,020	Lacombe.....	1,144
Strathcona	2,921	McLeod	1,144
Lethbridge.....	2,313	Cardston.....	1,001
Wetaskiwin.	1,652		

THE TERRITORIES.

The Yukon.

The Yukon Territory consists of a vast area lying between the 60th parallel and the Arctic Ocean, and reaching from Alaska on the west to the North-West Territory on the east. Its area is estimated at 196,100 square miles.

This territory is more or less mountainous throughout its whole extent. It is a country of rolling hills, mountain ranges, and navigable streams. The southern portion of the territory consists of the upper basin of the Yukon River. Here are to be found many large rivers, tributaries of the Yukon, such as the Lewes, Pelly, Stewart, Porcupine, Macmillan, Klondike, and others.



Washing Gold on the Klondike.

Lying so far to the north, the summer season is short and the climate is subject to extremes of heat and cold. Garden vegetables grow to a large size at Dawson. The great value of the country lies, however, in the minerals, principally gold, which was discovered in great quantities in 1896 and 1897. Copper, iron, and coal have also been discovered.

The discovery of gold in the Klondike has opened up an important trade for Vancouver and Victoria, as well as for the coast cities of the United States.

North-West Territory.

The remaining part of Canada, containing 1,933,000 square miles, is called the North-West Territory. This immense area includes the former Districts of Mackenzie, Keewatin, Ungava, and Franklin. It

stretches from the Yukon Territory on the west to the possessions of Newfoundland in the Labrador Peninsula in the east.

This region is entirely unsettled except where the Hudson's Bay Company have their trading posts. Indians live in settlements about these posts. They engage chiefly in hunting and fishing. Large quantities of valuable furs are annually collected and exported. The remainder of this region is roamed over by Eskimo in the north and by Algonquin Indians in the extreme south.

The basin of the Mackenzie River occupies the north-west part of this territory. This river is nearly 2,500 miles long, being the second largest in the continent.

After leaving Great Slave Lake, it winds through a level alluvial plain and is navigable for about 1,200 miles from its mouth. The climate is such that trees a foot in diameter grow in the delta of this river, and garden vegetables are produced at the various posts scattered along the river.

The region known as the Barren Lands occupies a large part of the territory to the west of Hudson Bay and north of the 60th parallel.

The part to the east of Hudson Bay occupies the northern part of the peninsula of Labrador. (See map, page 73.) It may be described as a table-land, having an elevation of 1,500 to 2,000 feet. Its rolling surface, made up largely of marshes and bare rock, is dotted with innumerable lakes and traversed by countless streams. The severity of the climate, and the absence of sufficient soil, render this district unsuitable for either agriculture or grazing. The forest belt of Canada extends across the southern portion of this region, while, towards the north, the country, for the most part, is only capable of producing mosses and lichens. The few inhabitants of this inhospitable land, mostly Eskimo, live along the sea coast, and earn a livelihood by hunting and fishing.

To the north, and mainly within the Arctic Circle, lie (See map, page 73) the numerous islands and peninsulas situated north of the continent. A very large portion of this region remains unexplored. The whale, seal and walrus are found in the neighboring seas, and the musk-ox and reindeer roam over the islands.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

Size. — Newfoundland is about twice as large as Nova Scotia, having an area of 42,200 square miles. Its greatest length is about four hundred miles, and its greatest width three hundred and twenty miles. It is shaped like a triangle, and has a very irregular coast line, with many harbors.

Soil and Climate. — The soil of the island, at least in the inhabited districts, is not very well adapted for agriculture, to which little attention has as yet been given. But along some of the rivers, and at the heads of bays and inlets, the hardier crops are successfully cultivated. On account of the Arctic current which brings down icebergs along the eastern coast, spring is often delayed, and the change from winter to summer is very sudden. The climate of the western shore is much milder than that of the Atlantic coast.

Government. — The Governor is appointed by the King, and, like other provincial governors, he is assisted in his office by an Executive Council. The Legislature is like that of Nova Scotia.

The People and their Industries. — The population of Newfoundland in 1901, including that of Labrador, was estimated to be 220,984. Around the chief towns farming is carried on for the local market. Barley, oats, potatoes, and garden vegetables are the chief crops.

Though the island possesses some fine forest areas, lumbering is not yet largely developed. Of minerals, the most important is copper, and within the last few years Newfoundland has taken rank as the fifth in the list of copper-exporting countries. There are also silver and lead mines. Large quantities of iron are exported annually, and coal mines and oil wells are being developed. At present, however, the people of Newfoundland live mainly by the fisheries. By the census of 1901 there were 1,679 fishing vessels engaged in this industry, and 26,457 fishing boats. The prin-

cipal varieties of fish caught are cod, herring, lobster, and salmon. The cod fisheries are the most important in the world, and are carried on partly around the shores and partly on what are called the Grand Banks. These lie to the south and east of the island, and are in all over six hundred miles long by about two hundred in breadth. They form a wide submarine plateau covered by a depth of water averaging about forty fathoms. Upon these banks fish of all kinds, and particularly cod, abound.

Next to the cod fisheries the seal fisheries are the most important. In the spring large fields of Arctic ice are brought down to the shores of Newfoundland

by the Arctic current. To these floating ice-fields the seals resort in herds. The sealing ships push their way into these ice-fields and slaughter the seals. The annual capture reaches nearly half a million.

The herring, lobster, and salmon fisheries rank next in importance. A great part of

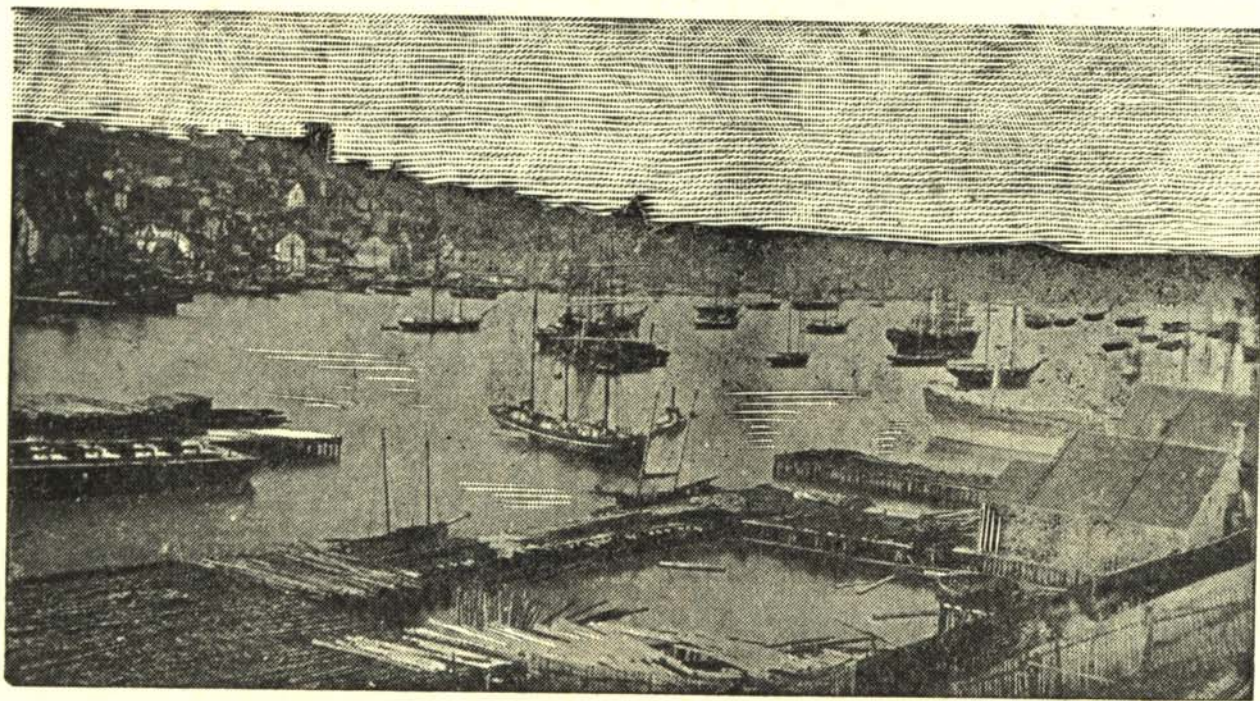
the product of the large herring fishery is sent to the United States in a frozen condition.

Cities and Chief Towns.

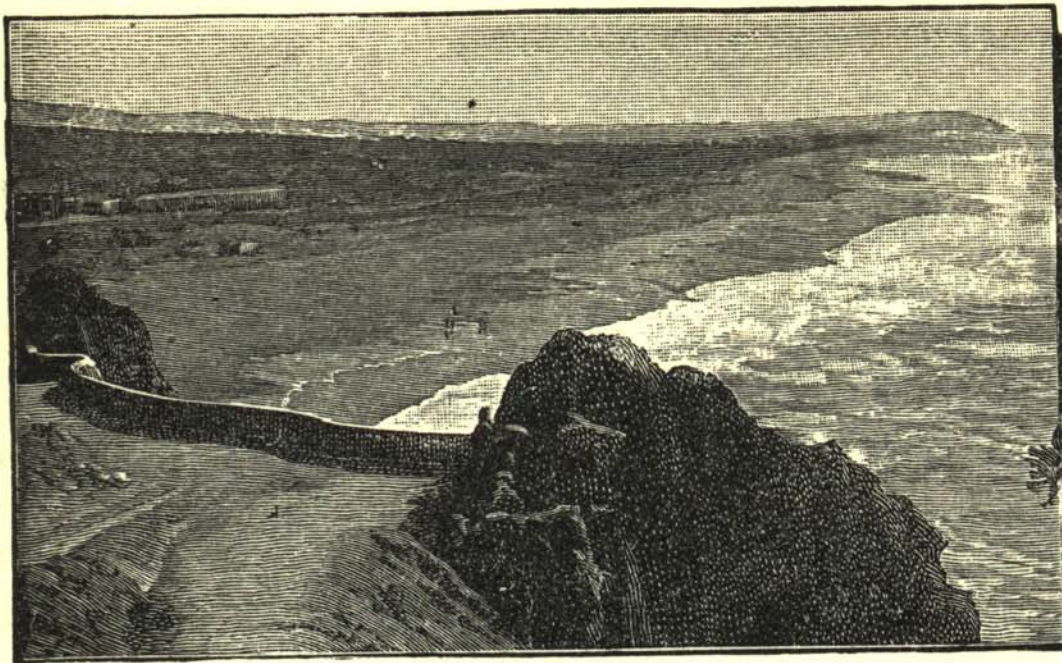
St. John's is the capital of the island and the seat of the Government of Newfoundland. It is situated on one of the best harbors in the world. This harbor is said to have been named by John Cabot. St. John's is the commercial centre of the island, and the chief place of export for the product of the fisheries.

Harbor Grace is the second town of Newfoundland, and is situated some distance north of St. John's, on the same peninsula. It has an extensive shipping and mercantile trade, and is the chief outfitting post for the Labrador fishery.

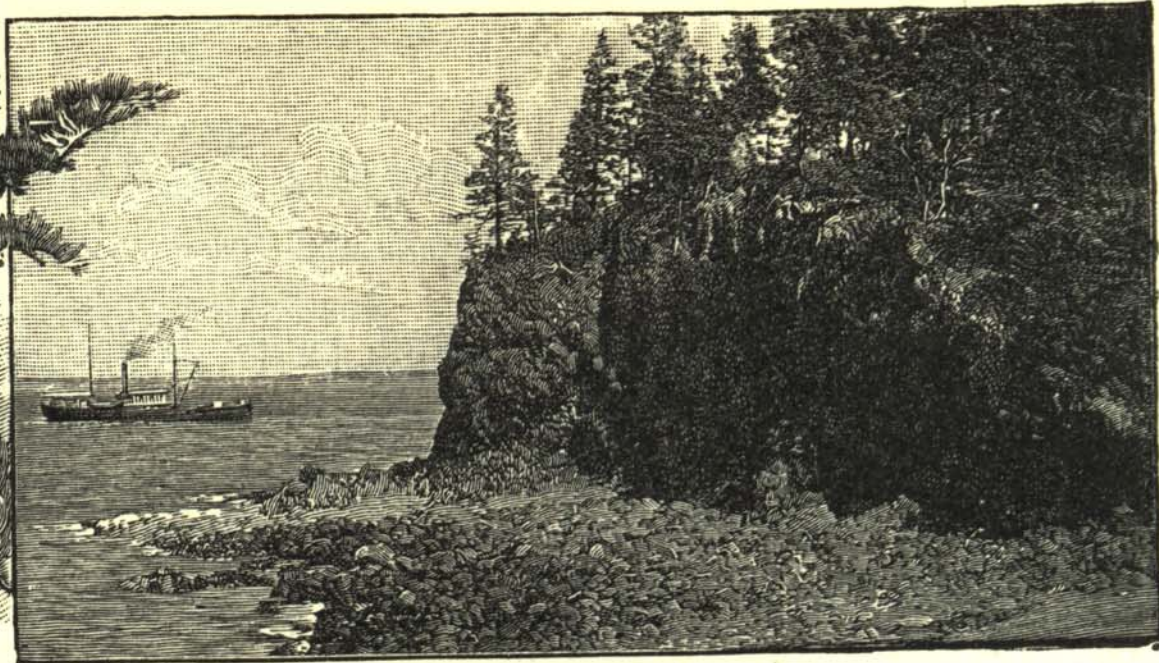
Hearts' Content is a town in Trinity Bay, and is the landing place of the Atlantic cable between Newfoundland and Ireland.



St. John's Harbor, Nfd.



Coast near San Francisco.



Coast of Maine.

THE UNITED STATES.

NOTE.—The relief map of North America on page 54, and the key on page 55, should be consulted for answers to some of the following questions. Most of them may be answered from the map on page 123.

Map Studies.

What states are separated by the Delaware river? By Delaware bay? By Chesapeake bay? By the Potomac river? By the Savannah river?

Name the states along the gulf of Mexico. In which state is the delta of the Mississippi? What two gulf states are separated by the Mississippi river? What river flows between Texas and Mexico?

Which states border on Lake Erie? On Lake Michigan? On Lake Superior?

Name the states along the north bank of the Ohio. On what lake does each of these states border? What states are on the south bank of the Ohio?

In what state does the Mississippi river rise? Name in order the states along the *left* bank of this river, Name those that lie along the *right* bank.

What states are crossed by the Missouri river? Between which does it flow? Across what states does the Arkansas river flow?

What states are crossed by the Rocky mountains? What states border on the Colorado river? Which are separated by

the Columbia river? In what state is the Great Salt lake?

What states border on Mexico? On the Pacific ocean? On Canada?

Name the six New England states.

Write out a list of the United States, with their capitals. Bound the United States.

Which states border on the Atlantic ocean? Which of these states contain no part of the coastal plain?

What state in the New England highland has no seacoast? Where are the White mountains? The Green mountains?

Which of the Great Lakes border on New York? What lake is between that state and Vermont?

Name the river between Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Which states are on Delaware bay? On Chesapeake bay? The city of Washington is in the District of Columbia; on what river is it built?

Between what states does the Savannah river flow?

What states are crossed by the divide between the Atlantic and the Gulf coastal plains?

Between what states does the Ohio



Coast of Southern California.



Coast of Florida.

The *Supreme Court* of the United States consists of a *Chief Justice* and eight *Associate Justices* appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate, and holding office for life or during good behaviour.

Some portions of the country do not belong to any state, but are known as *territories*. Their governors and judges are appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate, but the people of each territory elect their other officers. The Territories have also their own legislative bodies.

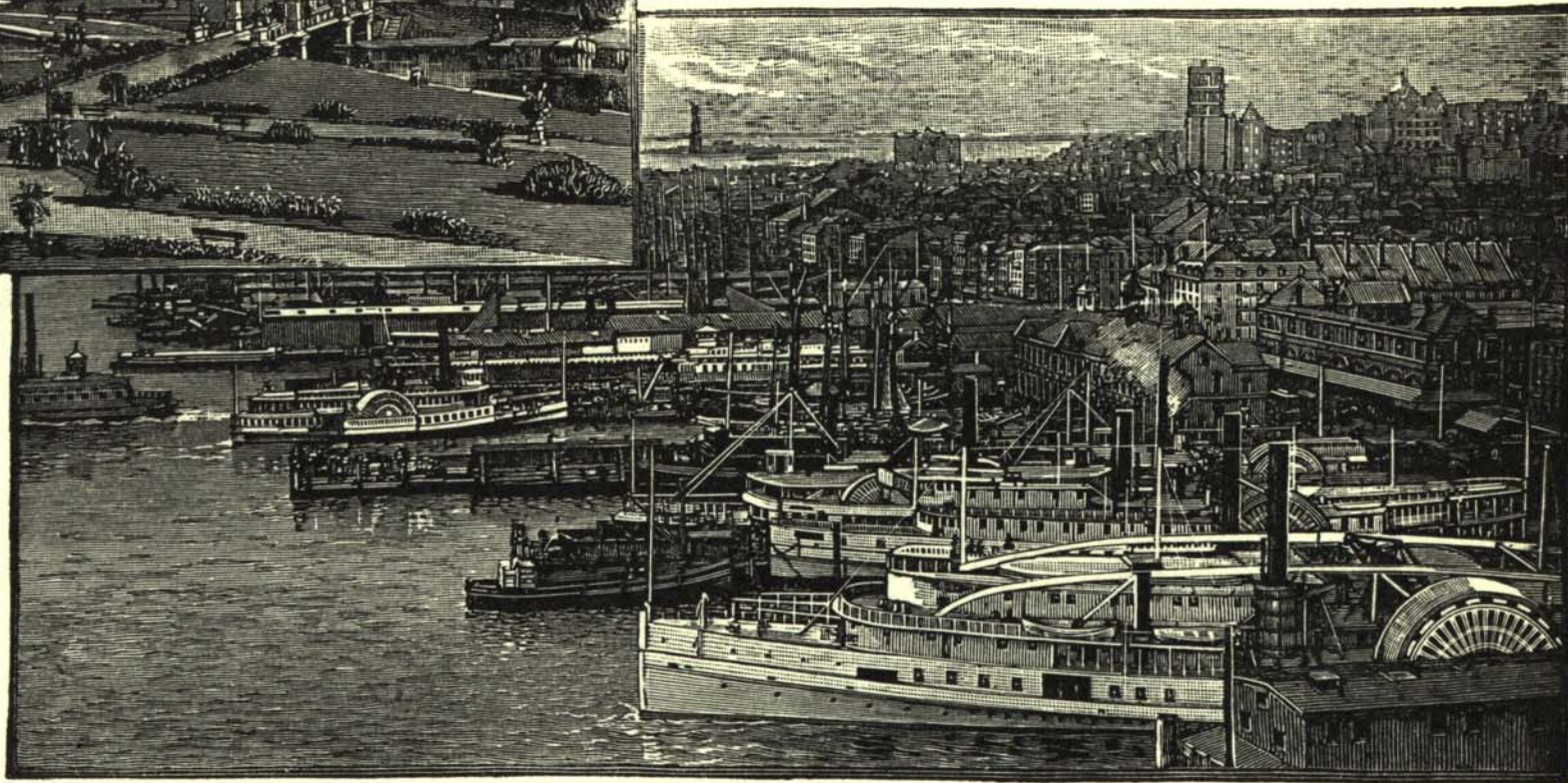
There are now five territories, as follows:—Alaska, Arizona, Indian Territory, New Mexico, Oklahoma. From time to time, as the territories increase in



Public Gardens, Boston.

The chief duty of the Supreme Court is to protect the rights of the people, according to the Constitution.

All powers that the states did not give to the nation under the Constitution, they reserved for themselves. There are now forty-five states, and each resembles a republic. Each has its constitution, its Senate and House of Representatives, its Supreme Court, its chief executive officer, called a *Governor*—as well as other officers.



Water Front, New York.

population, they are admitted into the Union as states.

The city of Washington, with its suburb Georgetown, is on a tract of land set apart for the use of the government. This tract is known as the *District of Columbia*. It is neither a



A Scene in New Orleans.

state nor a territory, but is under the control of Congress.

2. Chief Products.

Cotton is the chief product of the states on the Gulf of Mexico, with Arkansas, South Carolina, and North Carolina. Some cotton is grown in Missouri and Tennessee. Fall River and Lowell make more cotton cloth than any other American cities.

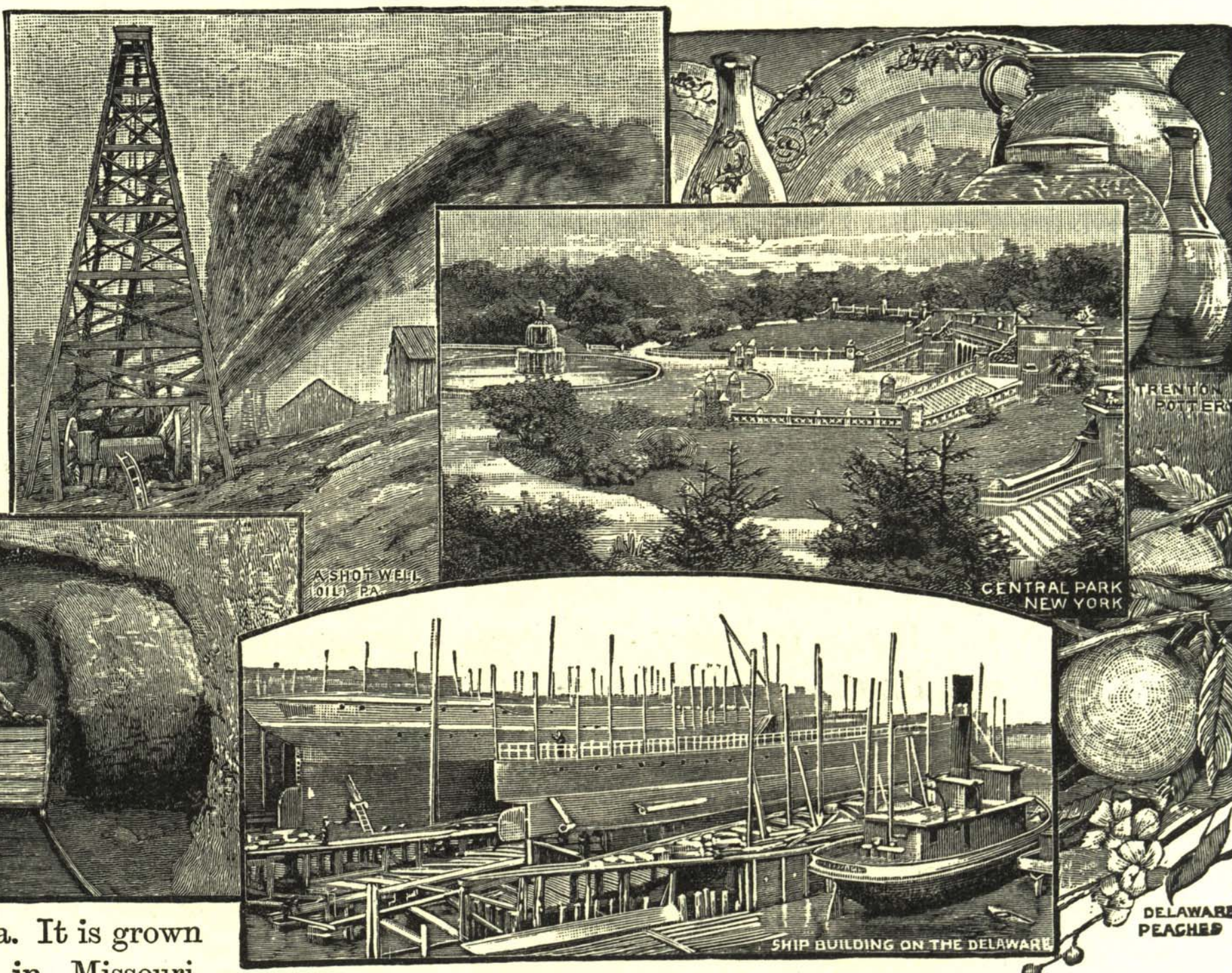
Draw a small map of the United States, and color the states that produce cotton.

Wheat is grown in the states north of the cotton states in the eastern half of the United States, and small quantities are also grown on the Pacific Slope.

Indian Corn is grown in every state in the eastern half of the United States south of parallel 45, especially Kansas, Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio.

Oats are grown in the corn states, omitting the cotton states.

Tobacco is grown largely in Tennessee, Kentucky,



North Carolina, and Virginia. It is grown to a considerable extent in Missouri, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New York, and southwestern New England.

Forests—The central portion of the United States is prairie land, on which there is very little timber. The states along the Great Lakes, all the Southern States east of Kansas, Oklahoma Territory, and Texas, and all the Northern States east of Indiana, are well wooded. The Northern States on the Pacific, and the northern part of the Rocky Mountain Highlands have large forests. The best lumber regions are along Lake Superior, in the Southern States bordering on the Mississippi, in the Appalachian Highlands, and in northern New England.

Fruit—California, Florida, Maryland, Delaware, and

New Jersey are the chief centres of the fruit trade of the United States. Apples are grown largely in the northern states from New England to Nebraska, as far north as Wisconsin, and in Kansas, Missouri, and northern Kentucky. Grapes are grown around Lake Erie, and the valleys of New York, and largely in California.

Animals—Hogs are raised in large numbers in all the corn-growing states west and south of New York, and beef-cattle in all the states east of the Rocky mountains, between the cotton states and the 45th parallel. Washington, California, and the Rocky mountain valleys are good districts for cattle-raising. The best district

for dairy products in the United States is the portion of the northern states east of Nebraska. Sheep are raised in the dairying districts, California, Montana, New Mexico, and Texas. Fish are caught in nearly all waters around the United States, especially along the Northern coasts of the Atlantic and the Pacific.

Minerals—COAL is found in many states, especially in the Appalachian Highland, Illinois, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas and the Rocky Mountain States.

IRON is found in a range of states following the general direction of the Appalachian Highlands from Alabama to Vermont, and in some mines in Texas, Missouri, Minnesota, Colorado, Utah and Montana.

Petroleum is found in large quantities in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Ohio.

Gold and Silver are found in all the States of the Rocky Mountain Highland and the Pacific slope, especially in California, Colorado and Montana.

3. Principal Cities.

Washington is the Capital of the United States. It is noted for its beautiful private residences, and its magnificent national public buildings.

New York—In amount of foreign trade, Hong-Kong, London, and Antwerp alone surpass the port of New York. This great seaport carries on more than half the foreign trade of the United States.

The chief exports from New York are meats, cotton, petroleum, wheat, and flour. Most of these are sent to Great Britain and other countries of western Europe.

New York's principal imports are—cloth from England, Germany, and France; coffee from Brazil and other parts of tropical America; cane sugar from the West Indies, and beet sugar from Germany; tin plate from England; rubber from Para; tea from China and Japan. New York is the greatest manufacturing centre in America. The total value of the manufactures of this city is greater than that of all the articles of import into the United States.

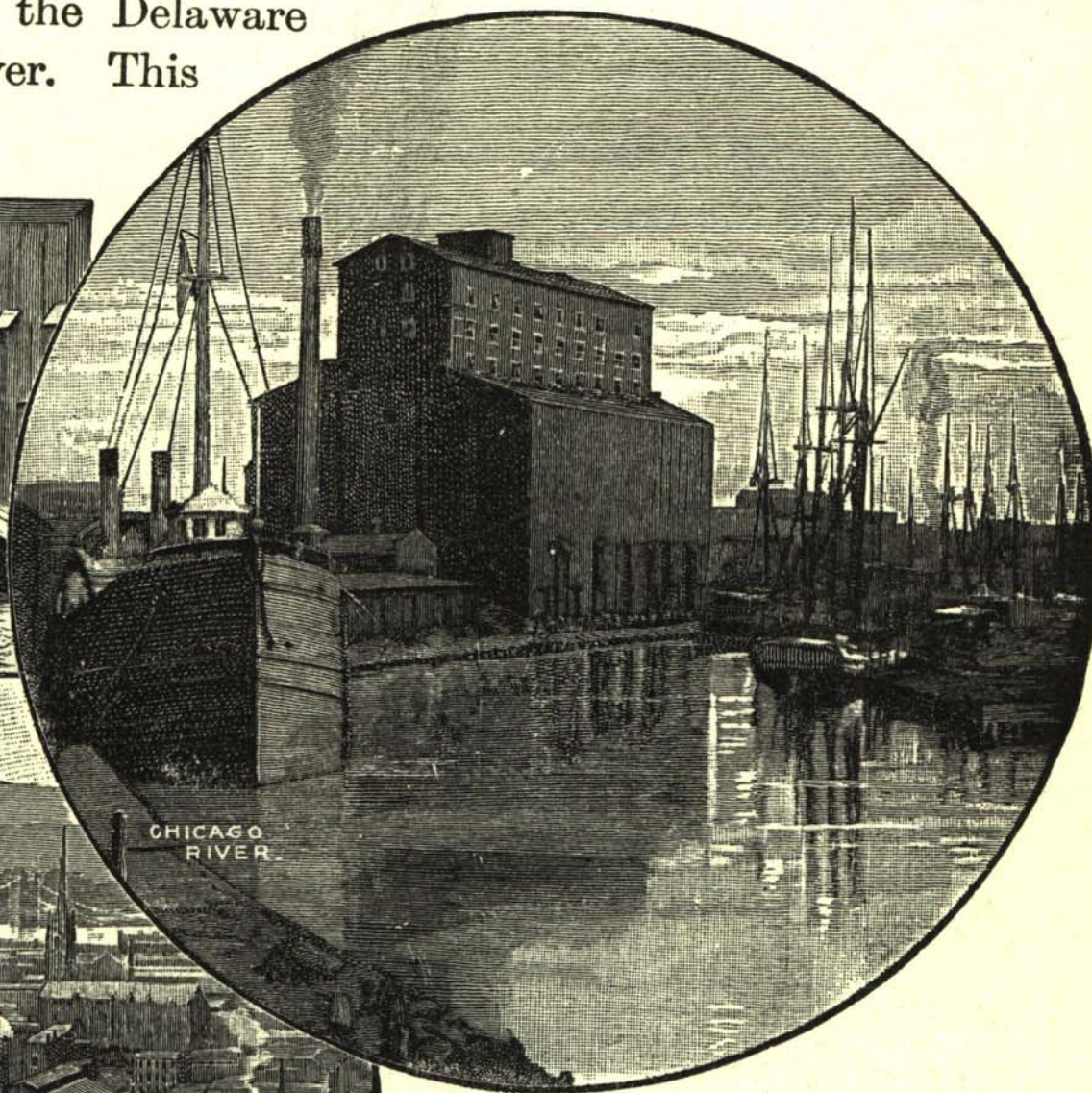
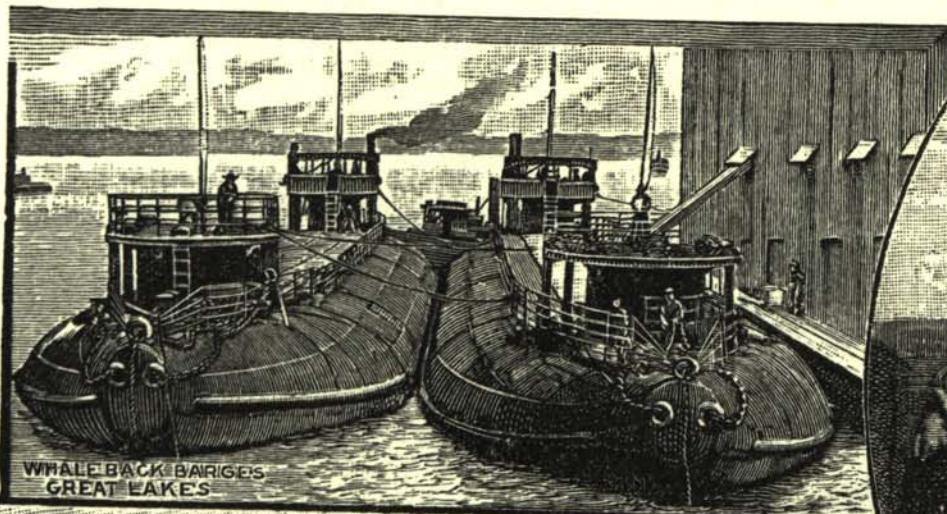
Brooklyn, Long Island City, and many towns and villages have been annexed to New York, making the total number of people in the city about 3,500,000. The refining of sugar, and the roasting and grinding of coffee and spices are important industries in Brooklyn. It contains a United States navy yard and has dry docks and other facilities for ship-building. New York and Brooklyn are joined by the largest suspension bridge in the world.

Chicago is the greatest railroad centre and lake

port in the world. The city ranks first also as a meat, grain, and lumber market. No other city in the union makes as much furniture or as many farming implements. In the manufacture of iron, only Pittsburg surpasses Chicago.

In the value of its manufactures, Chicago ranks second among American cities. The various articles made or prepared for market in a single year in this great city are worth nearly as much as all the goods imported into the United States during the same length of time.

Philadelphia has a fine harbor on the tidal portion of the Delaware river. This



city is not far from rich mines of coal and iron ore. Philadelphia, therefore, exports coal, and manufactures great quantities of iron and steel goods.

Philadelphia now leads the world in making woollen carpets. Nearly all the new iron ships of the United States navy are built there.

The foreign trade of Philadelphia is about one-tenth as great as that of New York.

Boston, the chief trade centre of New England, now has a population of more than half a million,—about one-tenth of the people in this group of states. Boston owes its growth largely to the fact that here the railroads from the west reach the chief harbor on the New England coast. Among American cities Boston ranks second in foreign commerce. It has also a large domestic commerce.

St. Louis has a population about equal to that of Boston. The former city is the principal trade centre of the middle Mississippi valley, and is reached by railroads and rivers from nearly all parts. Many of the products of this fertile valley find a market in St. Louis; and this city sends out groceries, clothing, and agricultural implements.

No American city, except Minneapolis, surpasses St. Louis in the production of flour. This great river port is near the Kentucky tobacco district, and ranks next to New York in the manufacture of tobacco goods.

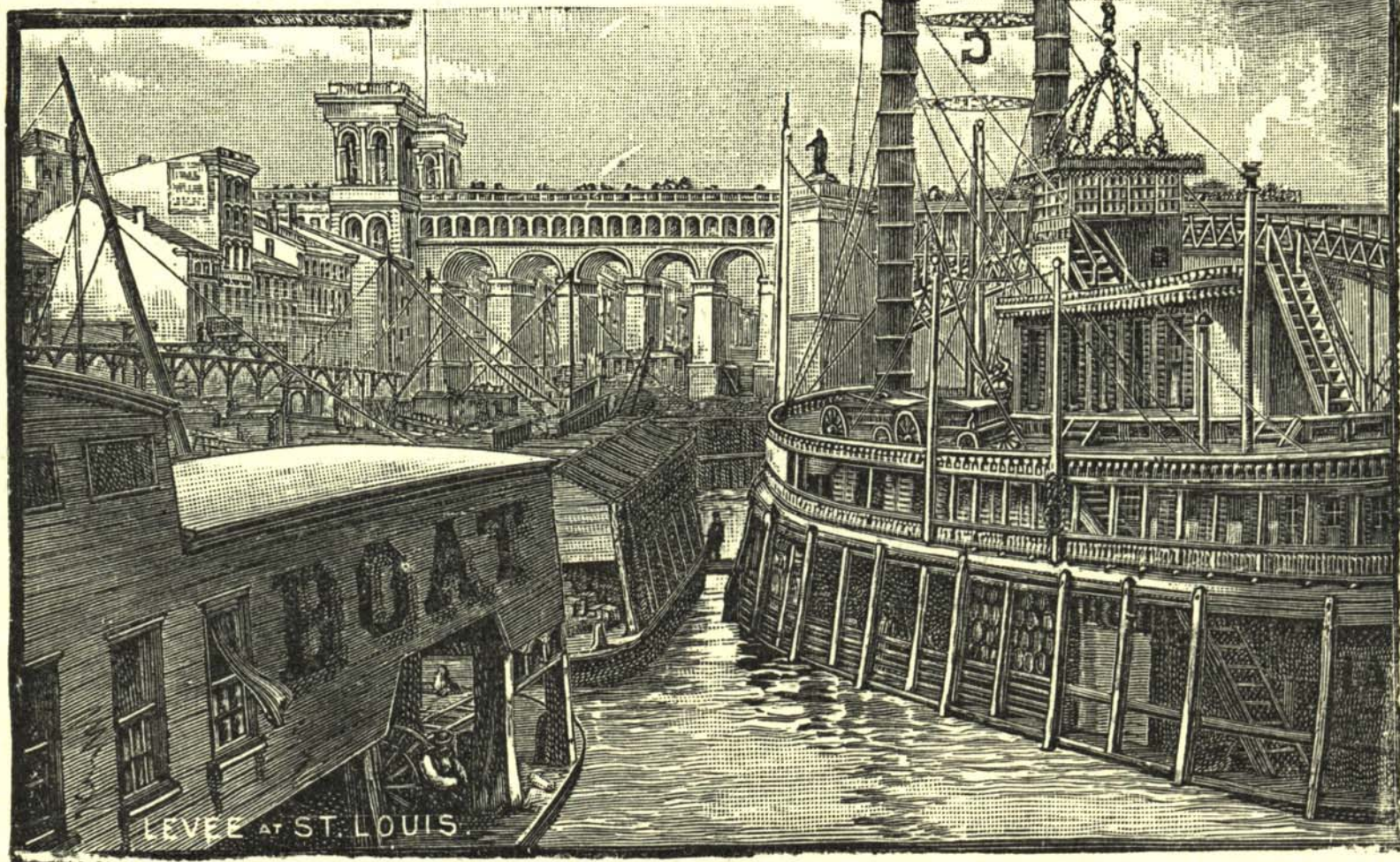
Meat-packing is an important industry in St. Louis.

San Francisco is the natural outlet for the products of the valley of California. More wheat is exported from this sea-port than from any other American city. It leads also in the refining of sugar.

San Francisco has a large inland trade in wheat, flour and fruits. The principal manufactures of the city are clothing, boots and shoes.

Among the imports are silk and tea from China and Japan, and sugar from Honolulu.

New Orleans has an excellent harbor on

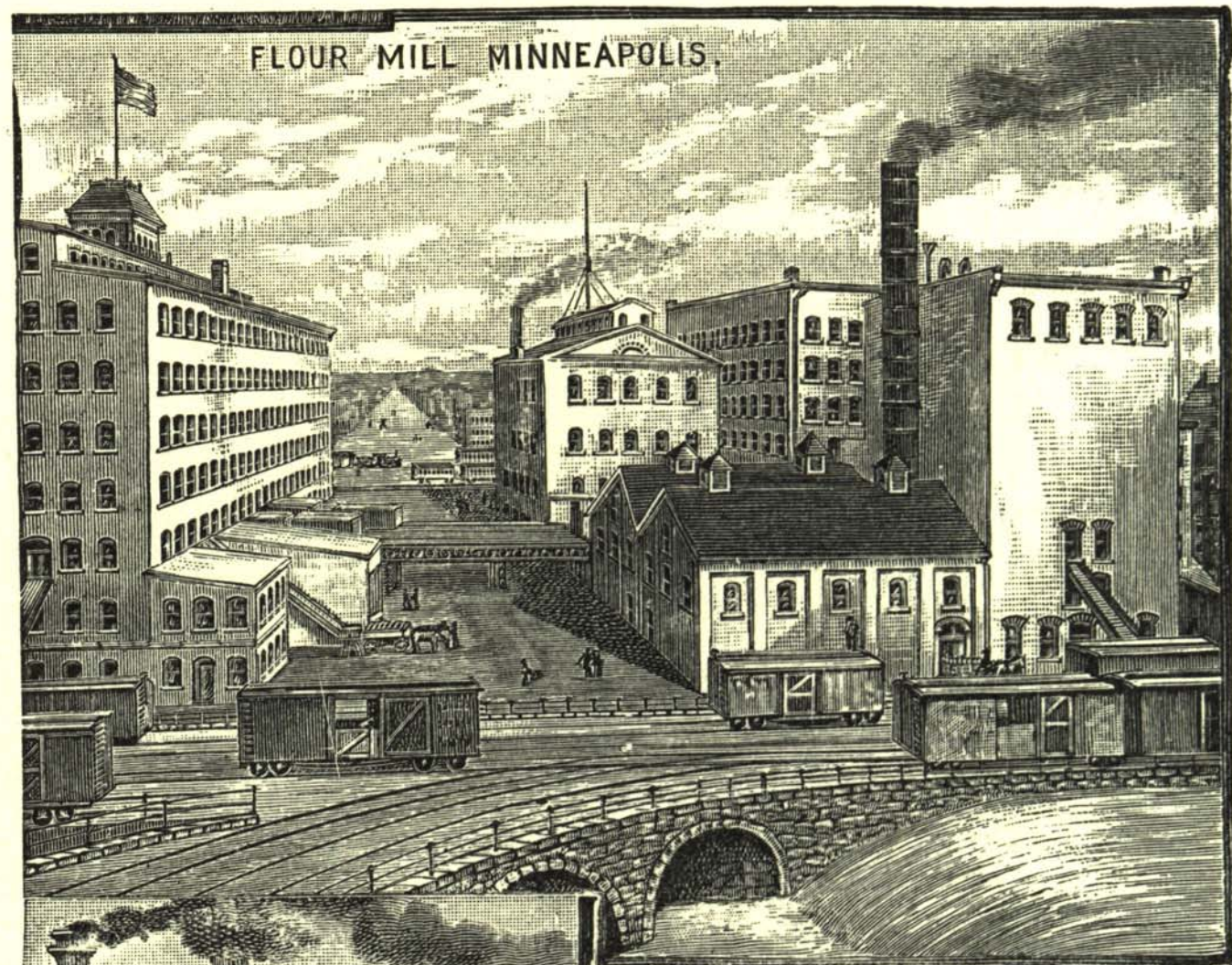


the Mississippi river, and has grown to be the largest city in the Southern States. Though its important trade in foreign goods is not large, yet its foreign *export* trade surpasses that of every other city in the Union except New York. New Orleans sends yearly to Europe cotton valued at nearly \$100,000,000. This city has also a very large trade in sugar, rice and corn. New Orleans has had rapid growth in manufactures.

Cincinnati has about ten miles of waterfront on

the Ohio river, and fully a score of railroad lines enter this city. The chief manufactures of Cincinnati are clothing and liquors. Meat-packing is an important industry. Many kinds of iron goods are also made here.

Cleveland is within easy reach of the coalfields of Ohio and Pennsylvania; and the oil districts in the same states; of the iron mines of the Lake Superior region; of the soft-wood forests of Michigan, and the



hard-wood forests of Ohio.

With these advantages, Cleveland has become a leading city in iron and steel manufactures, in oil refining, in ship-building, and in other great industries. More petroleum is refined in Cleveland than in any other city of the Union.

Minneapolis.—The flour made yearly in Minneapolis could not be purchased by all the gold mined in the United States during the same length of time. No other city in the Union produces one-half as much flour.

More than one-fourth of Minnesota is covered with forests of white pine. The Mississippi river, above Minneapolis, is fed by many streams from the forest area, and this city has therefore become the leading lumber market in the Northwest.

St. Paul is a great railroad centre, and is at the head of steamboat navigation on the Mississippi. The principal industry of this city consists in gathering the products

of the surrounding region, and in shipping supplies to the farming and lumbering districts.

Baltimore is on a fine harbor not far from the head of Chesapeake bay. The foreign commerce of this city is about equal to that of Philadelphia. Its bay supplies more oysters than are taken from any other equal area in the world.

Providence, the second city in size in New England, is at the head of Narragansett bay,—a partly drowned valley. This city has great woollen mills, and the largest jewellery factories in the United States.

Buffalo is a great railroad centre, and is the western terminus of the Erie Canal.

Kansas City, Mo., is one of the leading railroad cen-

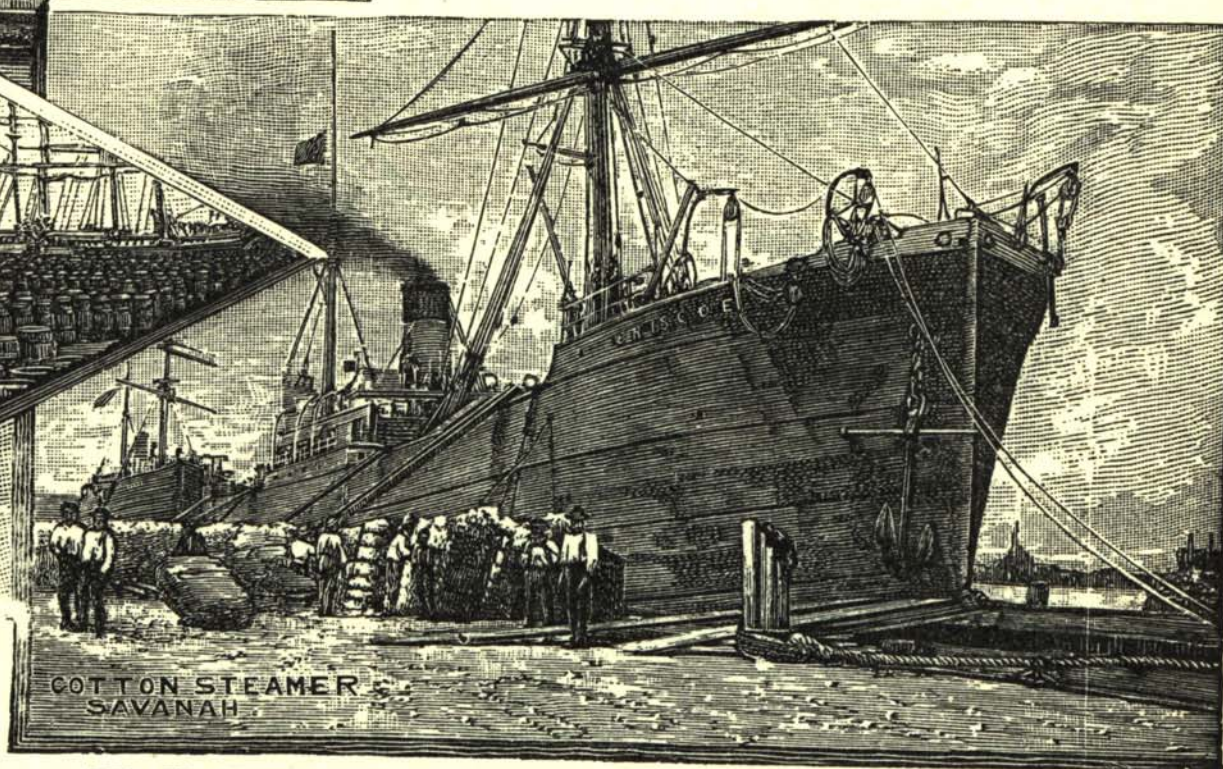
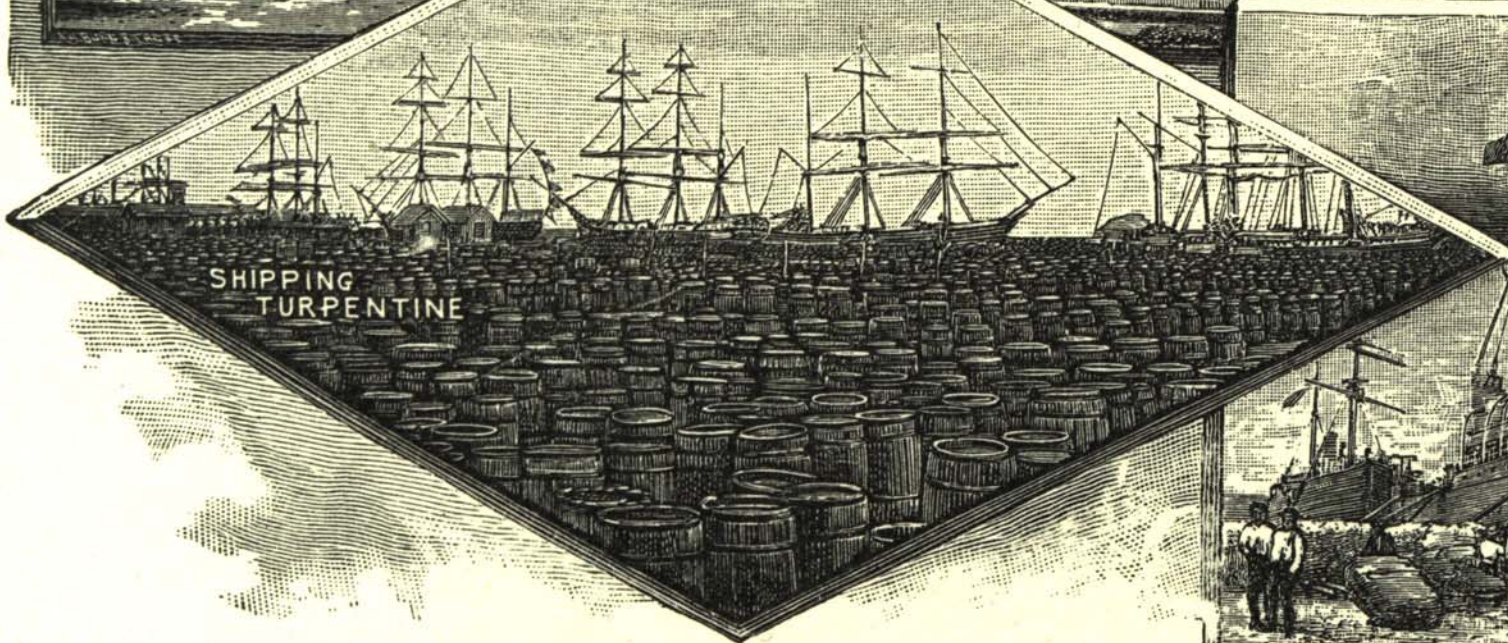
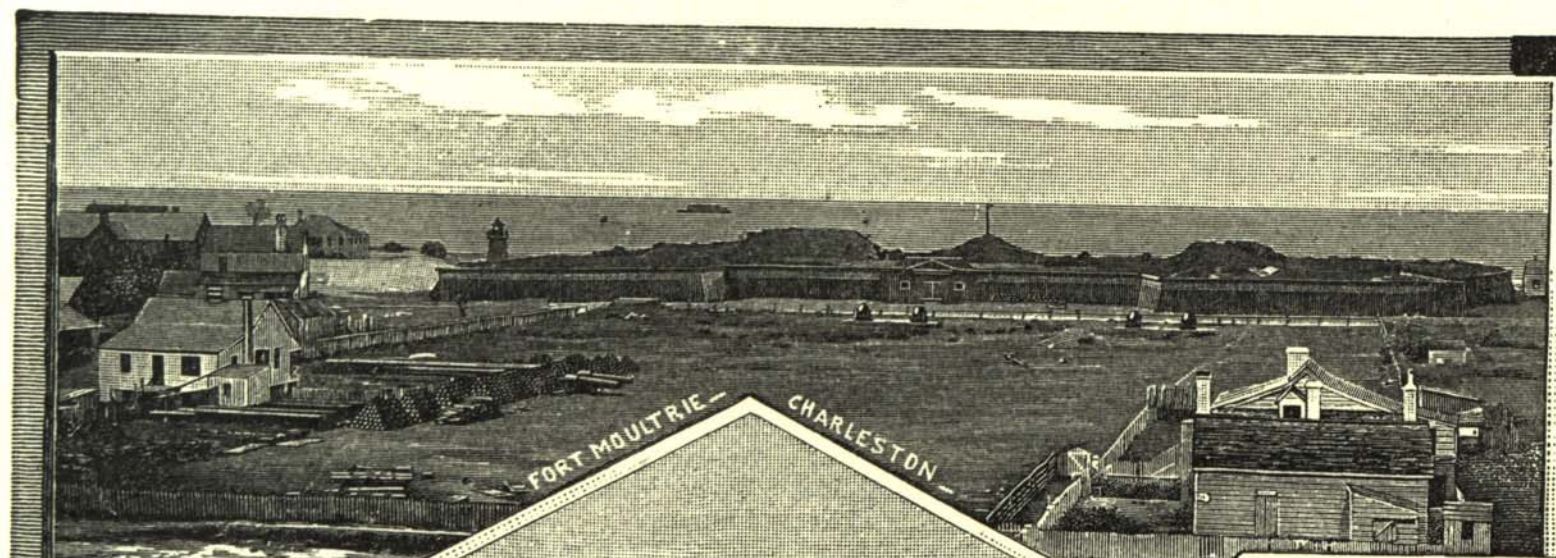
Denver is a supply city for mining districts in the Rocky mountains, and for cattle ranches on the Western plains. Few cities in the United States have had a more rapid growth than this state capital of Colorado.

Milwaukee is the second city in size on Lake Michigan. This port has an excellent harbor, and carries on an extensive lake commerce similar to that of Chicago.

Detroit has a fine harbor on the Detroit river. This city, like Chicago and Cleveland, is within easy reach of the lumber and iron regions. Detroit is noted for the manufacture of cars and iron goods.

New Haven is the largest railroad centre and port in Connecticut, and is the seat of Yale University. This city manufactures hardware and fire-arms.

Duluth is the eastern terminus of the Northern Pacific railroad, and is at the south-western end of Lake Superior. This city is the outlet of the wheat district in the Red River prairies.



tres in the Mississippi basin. This city, therefore, has an extensive trade with the surrounding agricultural districts. It is one of the greatest markets for farming implements in the country.

Pittsburg's leading industry is the manufacture of iron and steel goods. Among these are locomotives, steel rails, car wheels, and armor plate for ships of war.

Excellent sand for glass-making is found in the upper Ohio valley, and Pittsburg is famous for glassware.

This city has a large trade in soft coal and petroleum.

Indianapolis is the centre of trade of the rich farming and grazing districts of middle Indiana. Several lines of railroad meet in this city. They bring in grain and cattle, and carry back the various kinds of goods which are needed on the great farms. Meat-packing and flour-milling are leading industries in Indianapolis.

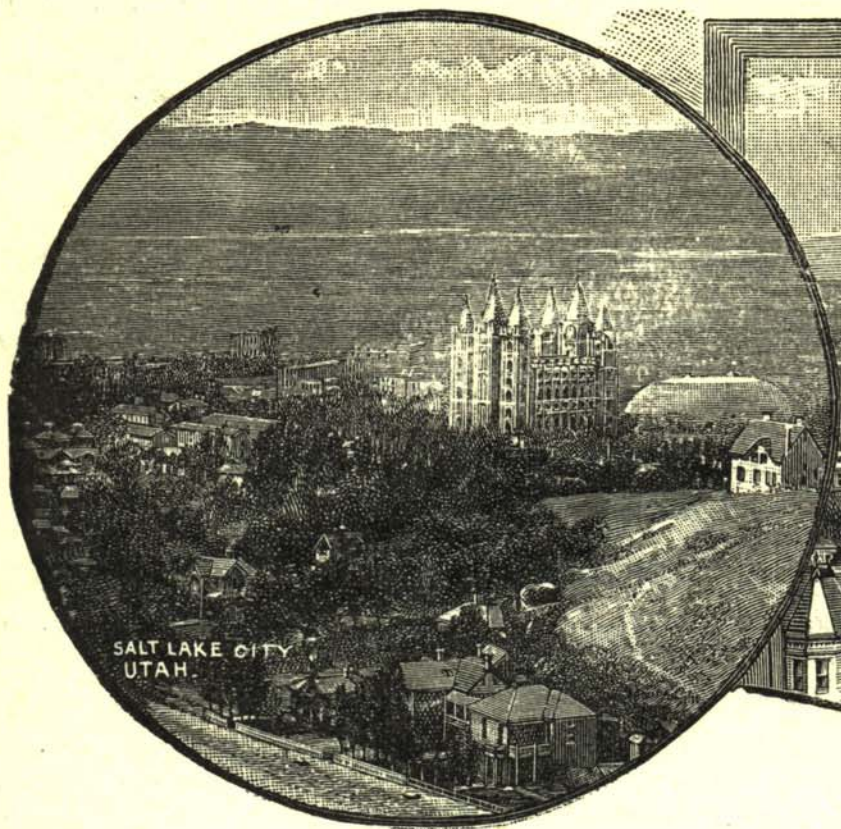
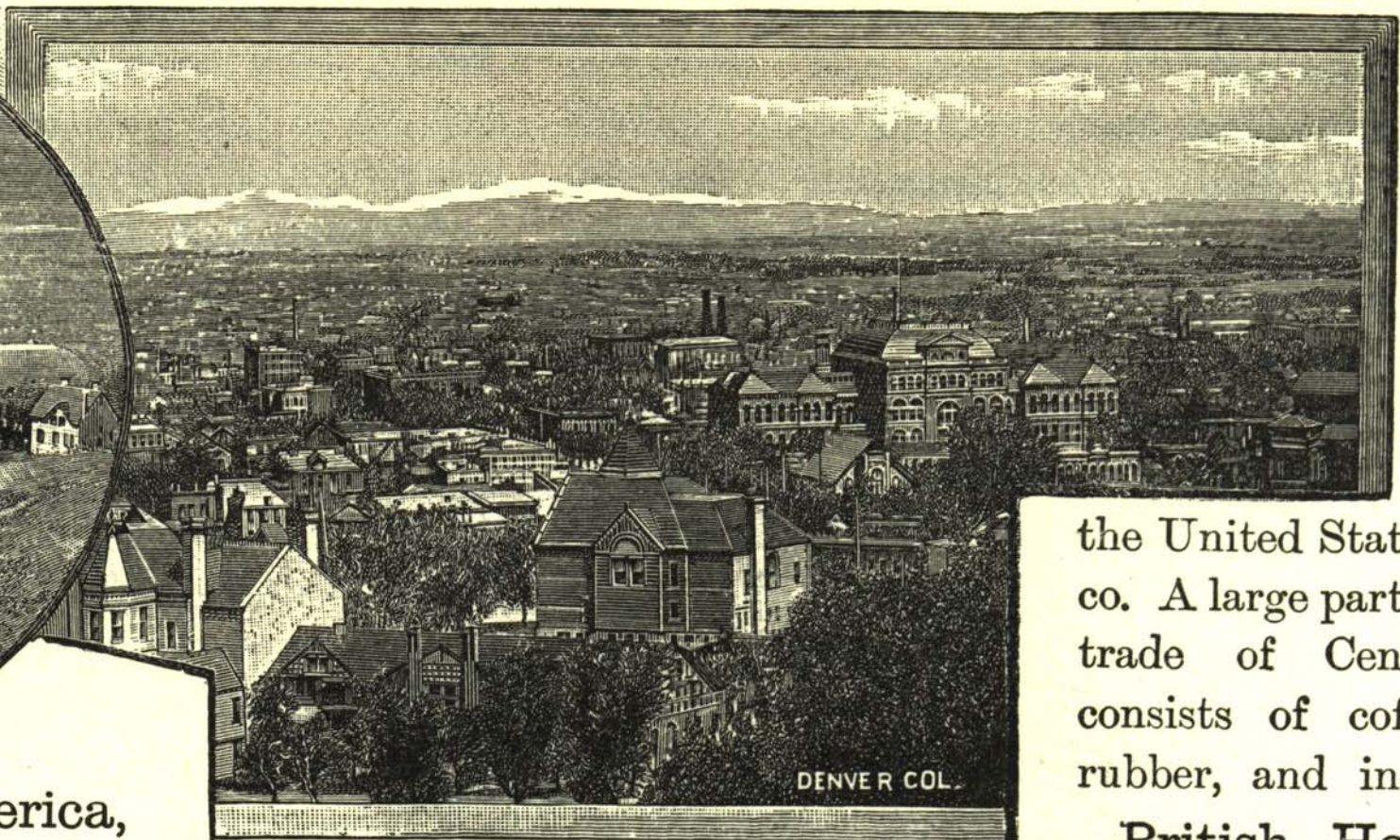
Fall River and Lowell manufacture more cotton cloth than any other two cities in America. It would take three-fourths of all the gold mined yearly in the United States to pay for cotton goods made in Fall River alone.

Portland, the largest city in Maine, is on a fine harbor, and has a large coasting trade. In winter, when the St. Lawrence river is frozen over, Portland serves as a port for some of Canada's foreign trade.

Omaha is a large railroad centre and a shipping point for cattle and grain.

Charleston is the chief sea-port of South Carolina. This city and Wilmington export more resin and turpentine than any other two ports in the world.

Salt Lake City is an important railroad centre.

SALT LAKE CITY
UTAH.

DENVER COL.

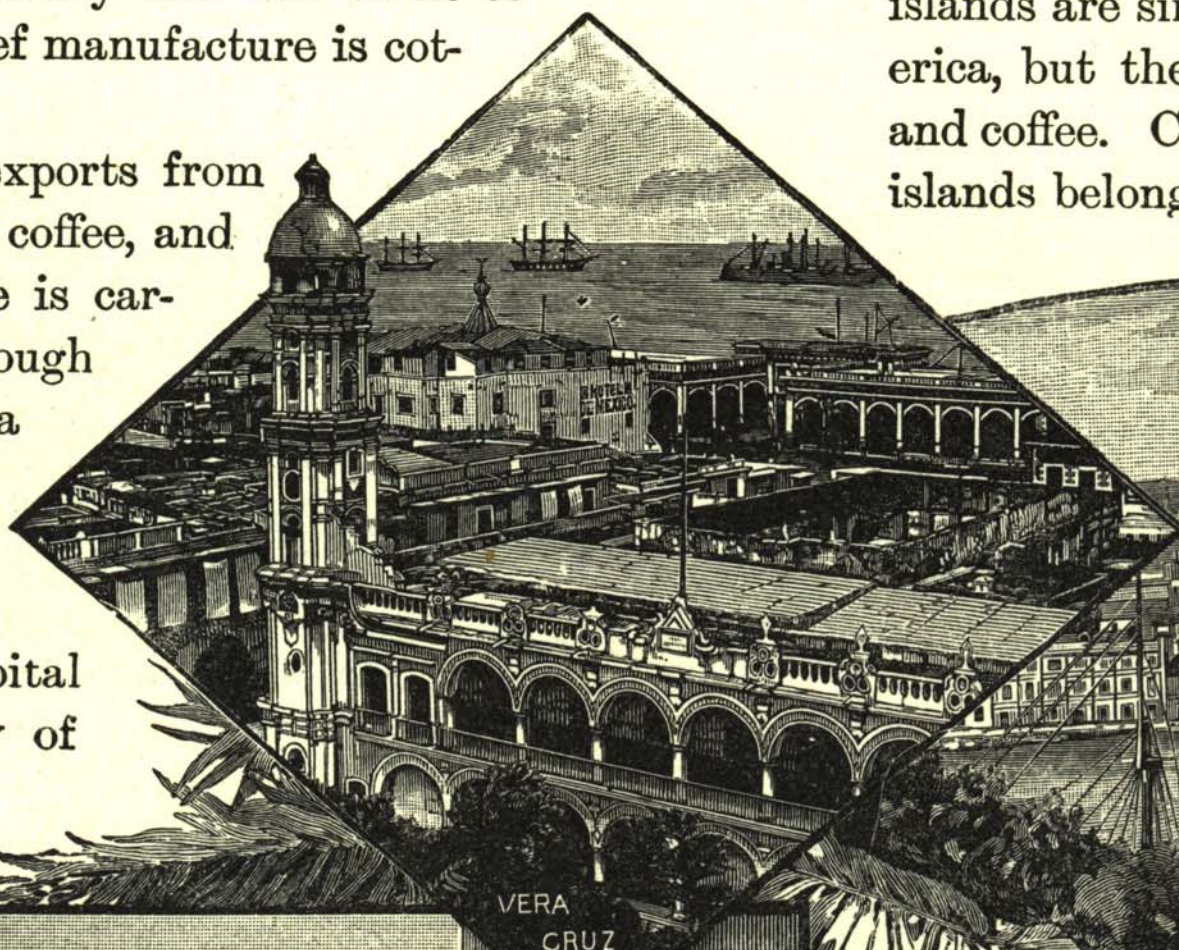
4. Mexico, Central America, and the West Indies.

Mexico—About nine-tenths of the people of Mexico live in the uplands, where there is good farming and grazing land. Cattle-raising is a leading industry. Among the agricultural products are coffee, cotton, sugar cane, and tobacco.

Mexico has rich mines of silver and other minerals. The most valuable mines are in the region of the Sierra Madre. This country has few mills or factories. The chief manufacture is cotton cloth.

The leading exports from Mexico are silver, coffee, and cattle. The trade is carried on largely through the ports of Vera Cruz on the east, and Acapulco on the south.

Mexico, the capital and principal city of

VERA
CRUZ

AGUAS CALIENTES MEXICO.

the republic, has a population one and a half times that of Montreal.

Central America.

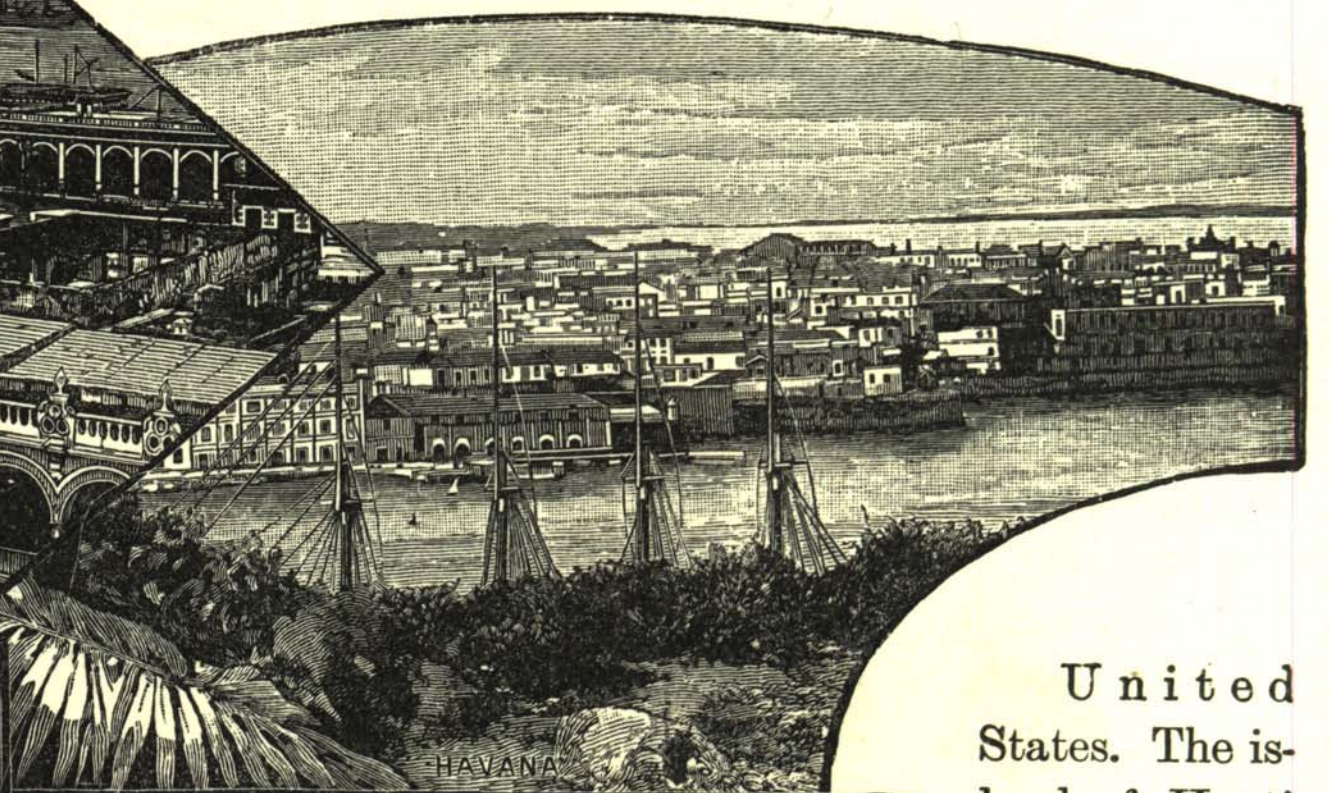
The small republics in Central America do not form a Union like the states in

the United States or in Mexico. A large part of the foreign trade of Central America consists of coffee, bananas, rubber, and indigo.

British Honduras is a

British Crown Colony, and consists of a coast strip about one-fourth the size of New Brunswick. It is very valuable on account of the forests of mahogany and dye-woods, which are largely exported. The chief town, Belize, has a good harbor.

West Indies—The name *West Indies* is given to the group of islands which partly enclose the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean sea. The products of these islands are similar to those of Mexico and Central America, but the most valuable are fruits, sugar, tobacco, and coffee. Cuba is a republic; Jamaica and the Bahama islands belong to Great Britain and Puerto Rico to the



HAVANA



SPONGE YARD BAHAMAS

United States. The island of Hayti comprises the two small republics of Hayti and Santo Domingo.

Two-thirds of the population of Cuba



are of Spanish descent, but there are many Negroes. Havana, the capital and chief seaport, is one of the greatest sugar markets in the world.

The western half of the island of Hayti is settled chiefly by Negroes; the eastern half has a mixed population of Negroes and people of Spanish descent. The latter outnumber the former.

The island is divided into two states. The negro republic of Hayti occupies the western part. Port au Prince is the Capital. The Dominican republic occupies the eastern part. Its capital is Santo Domingo.

The British West Indies.—The British West Indian Islands are Jamaica, the Bahamas, and most of the Lesser Antilles. Jamaica is next in size to Cuba and Hayti. The scenery here almost equals that of the Rocky mountains at Banff. The climate in the mountains is healthy. Sugar, coffee, fruits and spice are the chief exports. Kingston is the chief commercial city. It has a fine harbor.

The Bahamas consist of about 20 inhabited islands and several thousand rocks. These are of coral formation. The trade in sponges is large. Coral, green turtles and salt are also exported. Nassau, the capital, is an important health resort.

The Leeward Islands are a group of nine princi-

pal islands under one government. St. John, the capital, is on Antigua.

The Windward Islands do not all belong to the British. The southern islands are grouped under a British governor. Bridgetown, the capital, is on the island of Barbadoes.



Mexican Children.



SOUTH AMERICA.

South America is not so large as North America. Both these continents have the same general outline, narrowing towards the south.

The two lands resemble each other in their relief or surface forms. Each has a long western highland and also a great central plain, with lower eastern highlands.

The isthmus of Panama joins the two parts of America. Along this neck of land, the primary highland consists of a hilly ridge. Passes among the hills are only about three hundred feet above sea level.

This isthmus is only about thirty miles wide, and a man can walk across it in a day. A railway crosses from shore to shore. An attempt is being made to dig a ship canal through the isthmus.

East of the Andes, South America consists

chiefly of great plains covered with forests or grass.

The great plains are broken on the north-east by the highland of Guiana, and on the south-east by the highland of Brazil. These are much lower than the Andes.

The north and middle parts of South America are in the trade wind belts and therefore have frequent rains wherever these winds rise over the mountains. The equatorial rain belt also shifts north and south across the northern half of the continent.

The southern part of the continent reaches far into the cool belt, in the path of the stormy westerly winds.

The warm equatorial currents of the Atlantic, moving westward under the trade winds, divide on the eastern point of South America and sweep along the north-east and south-east coasts.

2. Map Studies.

What oceans border on South America? Which part of the world ridge is in this continent? Along which coast does it extend?

In what direction is South America from North America? What isthmus unites these continents? What oceans lie east and west of both?

On which side of the equator is the greater part of South America? Over which part of this continent does the belt of equatorial rains shift north and south? Which part is in the belt of westerly winds?

In what direction does the Andes highland extend? Which coast does it follow? Which part of the highland looks the highest? The widest?

Compare the Andes highland and the Rocky Mountain highland as follows: Which is the higher? The longer? The wider? In what respects are they alike?

Where is the plateau of Bolivia? What lake is on this plateau?

Where is the highland of Brazil? Compare it with the Andes highland, in length; in width; in shape. Compare the Brazilian and Appalachian highlands in width and shape.

Where is the Guiana highland? Is it larger or smaller than the highland of Brazil?

On which side of the Andes is the great plain of South America? What highlands are on the northeast and the southeast?

Describe the course of the Amazon river. In which heat belt does the greater part of the Amazon basin lie?

Where is the La Plata river? Which river system drains the larger basin, the Amazon or the La Plata? To which river basin does the northwest slope of the Brazilian highland belong? The southwest slope? Which part of the central plain is drained by the Orinoco river? What highland partly separates the basin of the Orinoco from that of the Amazon?

Compare the central plains of North America and South America as follows: What large river system drains the southern part of each? The northern part? The north-central part?



Draw the general outline of South America,—using only three straight lines. State the general direction of each coast. Which is the longest?

Sketch the Pacific coast of all America. Which is the more regular, the west coast of North America or that of South America?

Sketch the north coasts of both continents. Which of these coasts is the more irregular? Which is in the colder belt? Sketch the east coast of all America. Compare the two parts.

Where is the Caribbean sea? Name a river flowing northward into the sea. Where is the San Francisco river?

Make a list of the countries of South America with their capitals.

Why is the climate of Quito pleasant, although it is at the equator?



RELIEF MAP OF SOUTH AMERICA.

3. The Andes Highland.

The Andes highland consists of a great mountain system, with many long and high valleys between its ranges. This highland extends about one-fifth of the way around the earth.

The west slope of the Andes is short and in most parts steep. East of this highland lie broad plains. In the valley of the Amazon are the *selvas*, or *forest* plains. Other parts of the plains are grass lands.

The southern portion of the Andes has partly sunk beneath the sea. Many fine fiords now occupy deep valleys worn in the western slope. Ridges and peaks that the sea did not entirely cover, form a fringe of islands.

About half way between Cape Horn and the



City of Panama.

Although high, the plateau of Bolivia is too near the equator to be very cold. Corn and potatoes grow around the lake, and cattle, alpacas, and llamas graze there. The mountains yield much silver ore.

North-west of Bolivia the plateau is neither so wide nor quite so high. In the Andes of Peru, the ranges on the east are separated by long and deep valleys in which many rivers flow to the lowlands. The rains of the trade winds are very heavy on this eastern mountain slope, which is therefore covered with dense forests.

For more than a thousand miles along the west slope of the middle Andes, there is a region known as the *rainless coast*. The desert of *Atacama*, at the southern end of the rainless coast, merges into the fertile plain of middle Chile. This desert is at the northern end of the country of Chile.



Chimborazo.

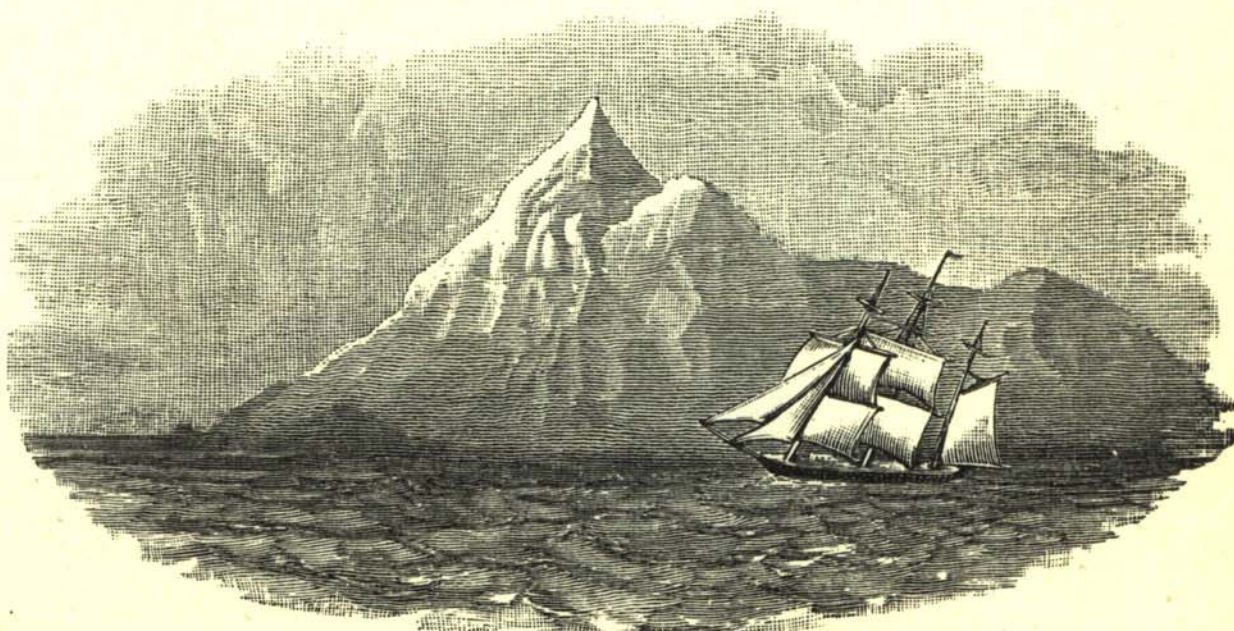
sharp bend in the Pacific coast, the Andes chain is very high. Some of the peaks are more than four miles above the sea level, and are white with snow all the year.

West of this part of the Andes lies the long and narrow plain of middle Chile. The land near the sea is rugged but not very high. The plain is between this rough coast land and the Andes.

The plateau of Bolivia lies in the widest part of the Andes. It is the highest plateau in America, and is shut in both on the east and west by lofty ranges. The plateau of Bolivia averages about 12,000 feet in height.

On the plateau of Bolivia there is a large sheet of water, known as *Lake Titicaca*.

Titicaca is the largest lake in South America, and is the loftiest large body of water in the New World.



Cape Horn.

In the northern part of the Andes are many high and wide valleys, walled in by mountain ranges. Some of these valleys are covered with coarse wash from the mountains and are dry and barren. Others are coated with fine soil, largely made of weathered volcanic ash. One of the most noted of these high valleys is that of Quito, a little less than two miles above sea level.

The valley of Quito is in the midst of the most noted group of volcanos in the world. There may be seen cones so old that their sides are cut by streams, and cones smooth with recent flows of lava and showers of ashes.

Some of the volcanoes are very active. Cotopaxi, about twice as high as the plain of Quito, is the loftiest *active* volcano known. The summit of this great cone is buried in snow, and is often hidden by clouds. Another famous peak is Chimborazo. This giant cone is higher than Cotopaxi, but is not active.

Many earthquakes occur in this volcanic region. For this reason most of the houses are built low and flat. They are made chiefly of sun-dried bricks. During one



The Condor.

very high, and it ends near the isthmus of Panama. The middle chain runs almost due north. The eastern range curves for some distance along the northern coast.

The long valleys east and west of the middle chain are drained by the Magdalena river and its branches. The Magdalena river is the chief waterway in Columbia, and is navigable for many miles from the sea.

4. The Highland of Brazil.

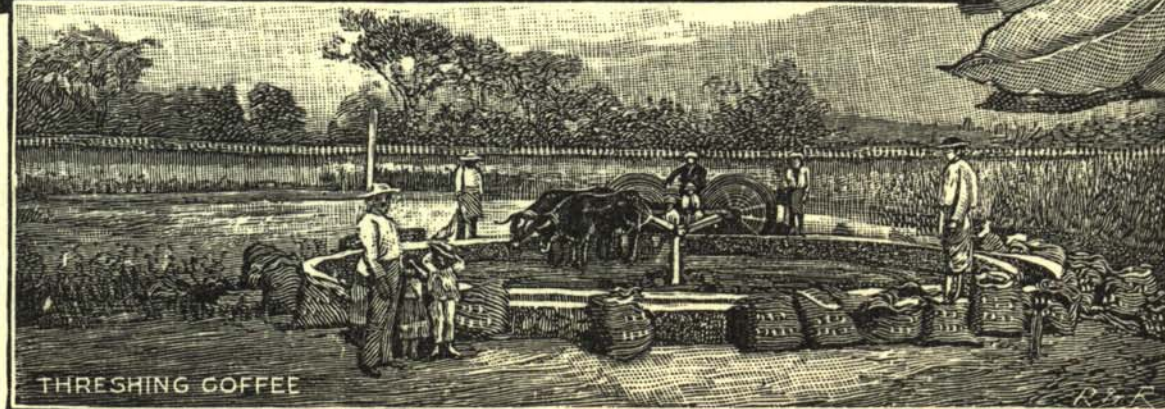
The highland of Brazil is shaped like a triangle, with one side lying along the east coast. The coastal part is the highest. As a whole, the highland of Brazil is only about one-sixth as high as that of the Andes, or about equal to the Appalachian highland.

Long rivers flow northward and southward from about the middle of the highland of Brazil. This part of the highland is a plateau, not yet deeply cut by streams. Farther north and south, deep and wide



earthquake, about a century ago, forty thousand people are said to have been killed in Quito.

In the extreme north the Andes divide into three main ranges. The western range is not





valleys have been worn in the plateau, leaving long ridges between them. Rapids and falls abound in most of the streams and make them unfit for waterways.

The coast of this highland region is not broken by long bays. The best harbor is that of Rio Janiero. It is deep and broad, and ranks among the finest in the world. Rocky reefs help to form harbors in some places along the coast of Brazil.

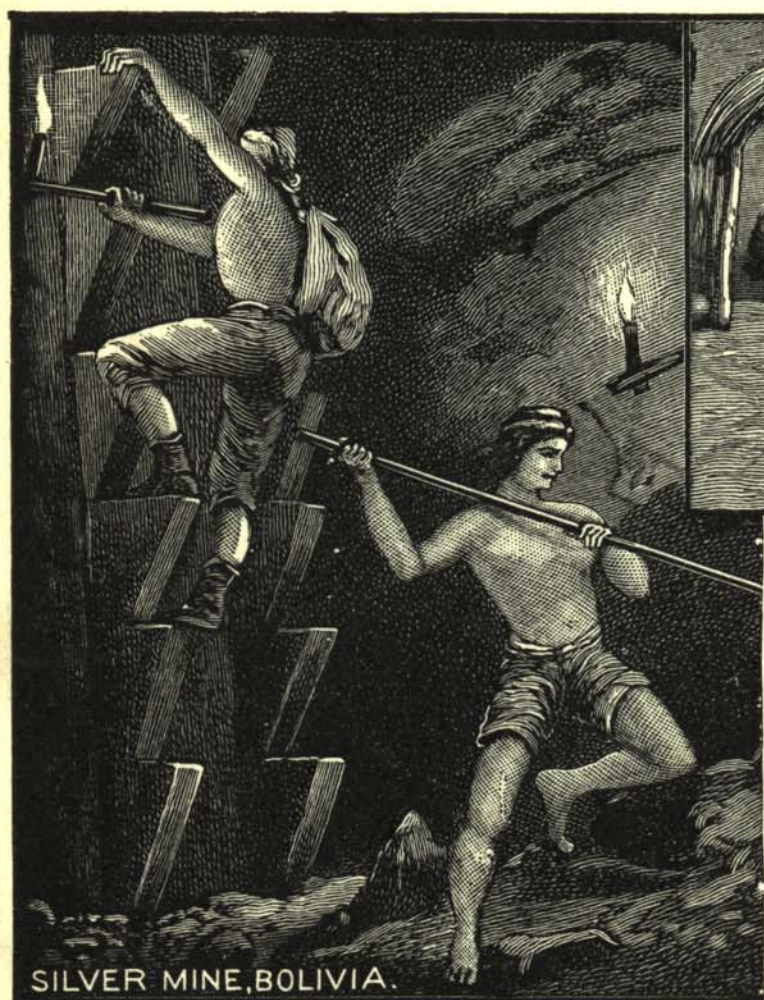
Towards the coast dense forests cover large areas in this highland. In the inland region, where the rainfall is lighter than it is near the coast, there are wide grassy plains known as the *campos*. Herds of cattle graze on the campos.

Many useful plants are raised on the highland,—chiefly in the rainy eastern part. Among these are coffee, sugar cane, cotton and cassava.

Rio Janiero is the greatest coffee market in the world.

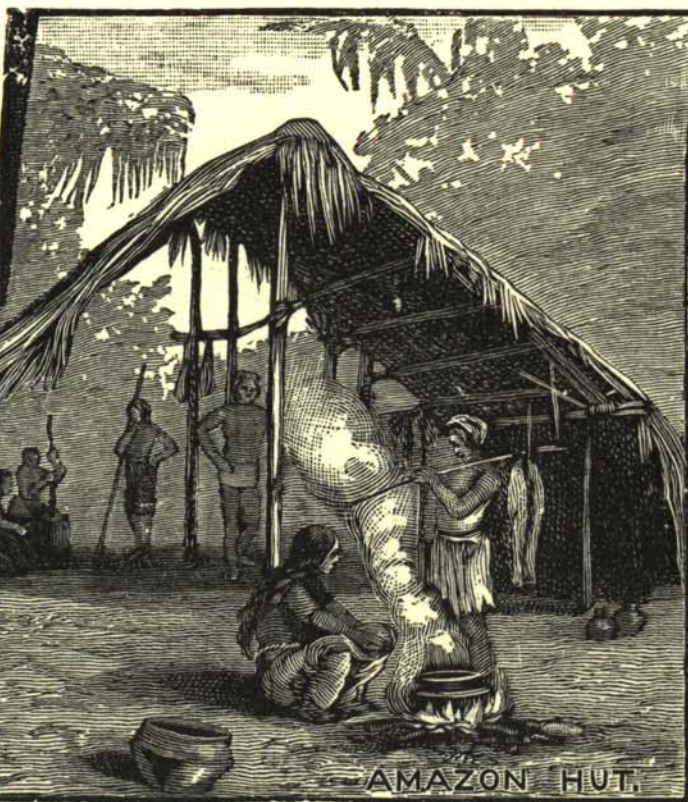
5. The Guiana Highland.

On the northeast the great plain of South America is broken by the Guiana highland.



SILVER MINE, BOLIVIA.

This highland is for the most part a much-worn plateau, with flat-topped hills and mountains rising in high cliffs from wide valleys. One of these table mountains, near the central part of the highland, rises about a mile and a half above sea level, but most of the peaks are not half so high.



AMAZON HUT.

This highland is for the most part a much-worn plateau, with flat-topped hills and mountains rising in

This highland is reached by the equatorial rains and therefore has its wettest season during the hot months. In all seasons the highest portions are well watered, for the trade winds give out rain as they rise over the highland.

On the north of the Guiana highland lies a wooded coastal plain. Large swamps that extend along the shore are the home of many alligators. The slope passes so gently under the sea that at low tide wide tracts of sand and mud are laid bare.

Much of the south slope of the highland consists of rough hills and bare rocky val-

leys, for the winds from the sea give their rains mostly to the northern slopes.

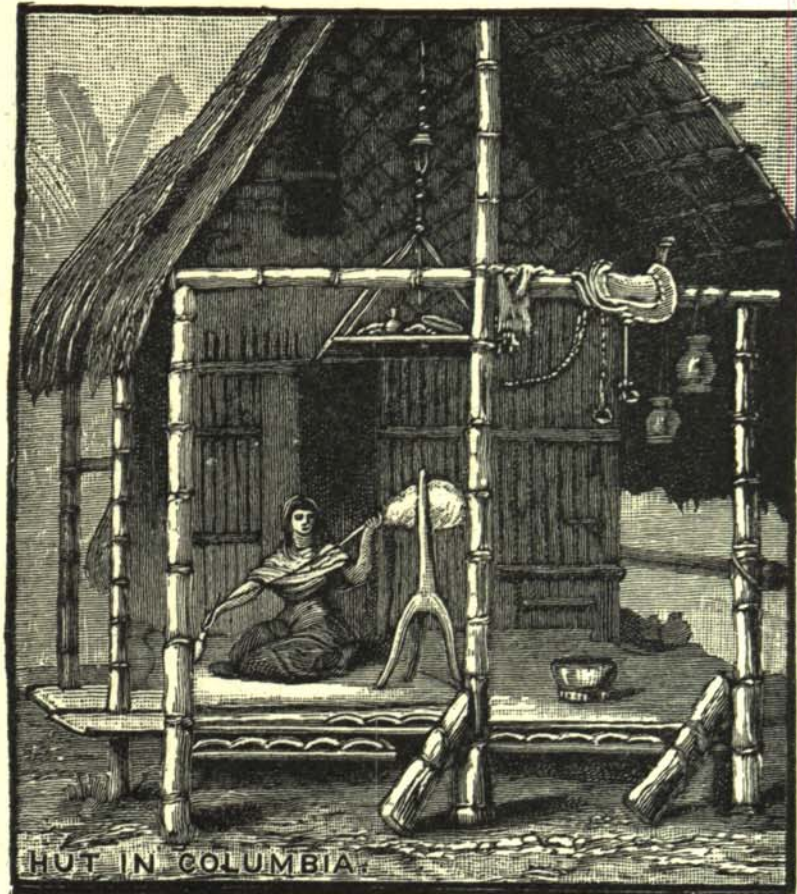
6. The Selvas.

The slopes east of the crest of the Andes are mainly in three great river basins. The divides between these basins cross the highlands of Brazil and Guiana, and the lowlands farther inland.

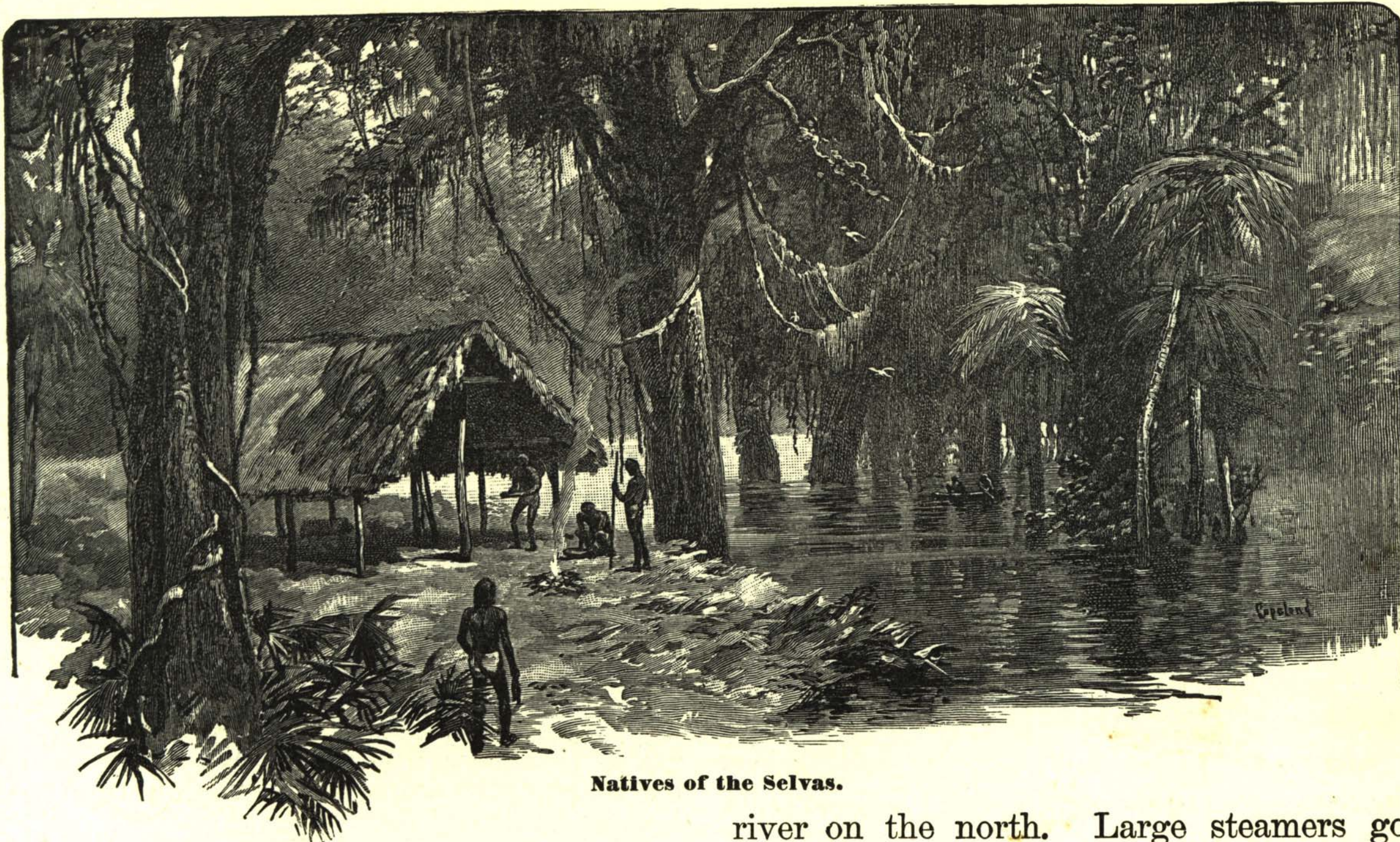
The Amazon basin is between the other two. The highest parts of its long slope are in the Andes. The lowest part are coastal swamps, more than two thousand miles east of the snowy peaks. The side slopes descend from the highland of Brazil on the south, and that of Guiana on the north.

The Amazon basin is the largest in the world. It comprises about one-third of the continent.

This basin is in the equatorial rain belt, and its rainfall is very heavy. The Amazon river carries more water to the ocean than any other river in the world. Its muddy water is seen



HUT IN COLUMBIA.



Natives of the Selvas.

at sea for a great distance from land. Some branches of the Amazon rise in the Andes, and the water which follows the winding bank down from these sources to the mouth flows about four thousand miles.

The main branches of the Amazon are the Madeira river on the south and the Negro

river on the north. Large steamers go up the Amazon from the sea to the foothills of the Andes. For great distances many of the tributaries are deep, wide, and free from rapids. The length of navigable streams in the Amazon system is greater than the distance round the earth.

Part of the wide mouth of the Amazon has so strong a tidal wave or bore, that small boats cannot outride it.

Dense forests, called *selvas*, cover the lowlands of the Amazon basin. Long vines hang from the trees, and reeds and rushes grow in the wet soil, forming a network so thick in some places that one cannot pass through without first cutting a path.

Tree ferns and palms in great variety grow in the selvas. Many beautiful birds live among the high tree tops.

Many small tribes of Indians live near the banks of the streams. These natives catch fish in the rivers, and animals in the forest.

Large rubber trees grow on the hot and



Scene on the Amazon.



Pampas Grass.

other expensive woods found in the world, are in the valleys of the Orinoco and the Amazon.

7. The Valley of the La Plata.

South of the Amazon basin lies the La Plata basin. It reaches from the crest of the Andes on the west to the crest of the coast range on the east.

This basin is about one-half as large as that of the Amazon. The main stream is the Parana river which flows into the broad La Plata river.

The lowland of the La Plata basin is a young plain in which the rivers have cut only narrow and shallow valleys. The northern part of this plain is called the *gran chaco*, or *great hunting ground*. South of the chaco the plain takes the name of *pampas*, meaning *fields*. The pampas extend also far south of the La Plata basin.

Deep rich soil covers large portions of the La Plata plain, and its grass feeds millions of cattle, sheep and horses. Much grain also is raised in this region. In some places there are clumps of tall coarse grass covered with soft plumes. This is known as *pampas grass*.

damp banks of the Amazon. Deep cuts are made in the bark, and cups are placed beneath them to catch the milky juice which oozes out. When heated in certain kinds of smoke, this juice dries, thickens, and forms rubber of a fine quality.

The most splendid forests of rosewood, mahogany, and

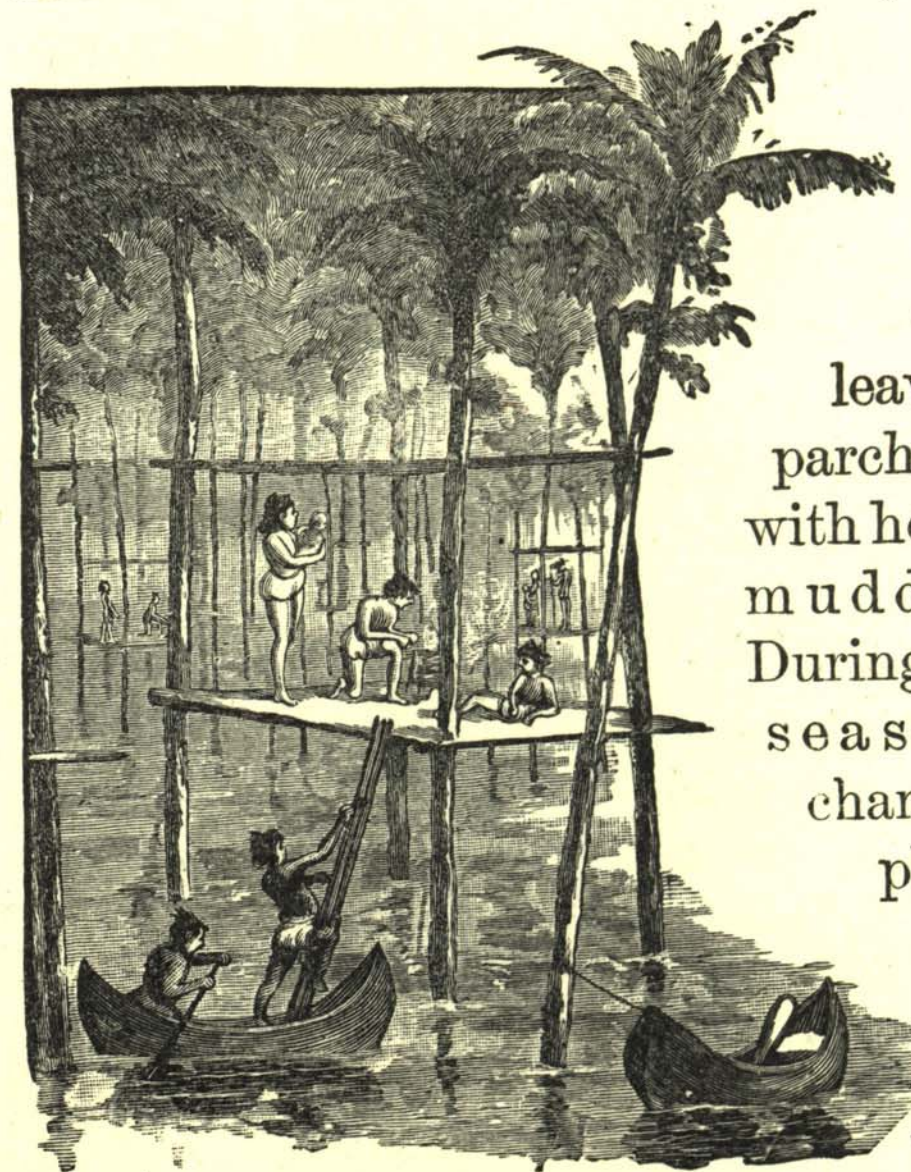
8. The Llanos.

The third large river basin in South America is that of the Orinoco. On the south it adjoins the basin of the Amazon. On the west and north the Andes form the boundary.

The lowland of this basin is a very young coastal plain. Its rivers flow in narrow valleys worn only a little below the level of the plain. The main river has made a large delta that is low and swampy.

The plains of the Orinoco are called the *llanos*. When the sun is north of the equator they are visited by the equatorial rain belt. The rivers are then swollen by heavy rains, and spread far and wide over their flood plains. Immense herds of cattle and droves of sheep feed on the rich grass which springs up all over the wet plains. The region then teems with life.

As the sun's rays become more and more slanting the rains leave the llanos and move south towards the campos. The overflow in the lowland is slowly drained off. The rivers then grow smaller and shrink away from their banks. Turtles and snakes bury themselves



Tree Dwellers of the Orinoco.

in the mud. The smaller streams dry away, leaving only parched beds, with here and there muddy pools. During the dry season a great change takes place in the life on the plains. Hot trade winds scorch the grass

and other plants. They die down to the roots



and thus await the return of the rains. The cattle and sheep move into the flood plains, or are driven to the grass lands along the border foothills. The plain becomes almost a desert.

In some places it is difficult to trace the divides between the three great river basins of South America. The Orinoco river and Rio Negro tributary of the Amazon are connected by the Cassiquiari river. Tributaries of the Amazon and Paraguay rivers, navigable by canoes, are separated by only three miles of plain.

With the exception of a few rapids and the portage of three miles, a person might journey in a canoe from the delta of the Orinoco to the broad mouth of the La Plata.

9. Countries of South America.

The countries of South America are republics, except Guiana.

Brazil—This country is nearly as large as Europe. The selvas give many kinds of wood useful for dyeing, for cabinet work, and for ship-building. Coffee, cotton, tobacco, and India-rubber are the chief agricultural products; About half of all the coffee produced in the world is grown in Brazil. The country is also very rich in minerals. Quicksilver, copper, and diamonds are the principal minerals.

RIO JANEIRO, the capital of this republic, is on a deep and spacious harbor sheltered by hills on all sides. This port is near the richest coffee districts in Brazil, and is the largest coffee market in the world.

Other exports from Rio Janeiro are sugar, hides, tobacco, and diamonds.

The principal imports into Brazil, are cotton cloth and machinery.

BAHIA, a large port north-eastward from Rio Janeiro, resembles the latter in its foreign trade.

PERNAMBUCO is the leading sugar port of Brazil.

PARA is on one of the wide distributaries of the Amazon. This city has a large rubber trade.

Other exports from the Amazon basin, mostly through Para, are cocoa, Brazil nuts, hides and Peruvian bark.

Argentine Republic—

Five-sixths of Argentina consist of plains. The people of this republic are engaged chiefly in raising cattle, sheep, wheat, and Indian corn. In the production of wool, Argentina is second only to Australia.

BUENOS AYRES, one of the principal ports of the continent, has a large foreign trade in hides, wool, mutton and wheat. The leading imports are cloth and railway materials.

CORDOVA and **LA PLATA** are important trade centres. The former has a university and an academy of sciences.

Uruguay—This is the smallest country in South America. The people are mostly natives of mixed races. Wool and hides are the principal exports.

MONTEVIDEO is the capital and the largest port.

Paraguay—In this small republic the most valu-



A Square in Montevideo.



able product is Paraguay tea, or *yerba maté*. There are good grazing lands in this country. ASCUNCION, the capital, is the commercial centre.

Chile is a long, narrow country west of the Andes extending from the southern point of South America to Peru. The country is mountainous, with fertile valleys between the mountains. The people are enterprising. Their export trade is chiefly with Great Britain. This republic has great mineral wealth. Copper, silver and nitre are abundant in the northern half of Chile. Rich mines of coal are being worked in the southern half.

The principal farming products of Chile are wheat and wine grapes.

VALPARAISO is the chief port. Most of the imports,—such as cloth, cattle and sugar,—are received into this city.

SANTIAGO is the capital and largest city of Chile. Santiago is in a wide valley on the western slope of the Andes, more than one-third of a mile above sea level.

Bolivia—West of the Andes this country is chiefly desert. East of the Andes it is a great plain covered with trees. This inland country has rich mines of silver. Its rubber product is of the finest quality. It also produces sugar, spices, quinine, and alpaca wool.

Bolivia has no seaport, but many of its products are exported through Buenos Ayres, Arica (Chile), and other ports.

LA PAZ and SUCRE are the principal cities. Sucre is the capital. POTOSI is noted for its silver mines.

Peru—Sugar and cotton are raised in the flood plains of the small rivers of western Peru. Sheep and alpacas are reared in the highlands. Sugar, cotton and wool are the leading exports. Silver, Peruvian bark, nitre and guano are also exported. Cloth is the most valuable article of import.

LIMA is the largest city and capital of this country.

CALLAO is one of the principal seaports of western South America.

Ecuador—The western part of Ecuador is mountainous. The eastern part is flat and very hot. Sugar, cotton, coffee and tropical fruits are produced in considerable quantities. The staple product of Ecuador is cocoa. This country, like all the others crossed by the Andes, has rich mineral deposits.

Ecuador is crossed by the equator. The lower part of the country is very hot. The high western part is pleasant and healthful.

QUITO is the capital. GUAYAQUIL is the largest city.

Colombia—The leading exports of this country are coffee, cocoa, mahogany, rubber and sugar.

BOGOTA, the capital, is over a mile and a half above the sea level.

PANAMA, formerly a department of Colombia, asserted its independence in 1903. To prevent incessant civil wars, its former curse, the new state was recognized by the United States and chief European Powers.

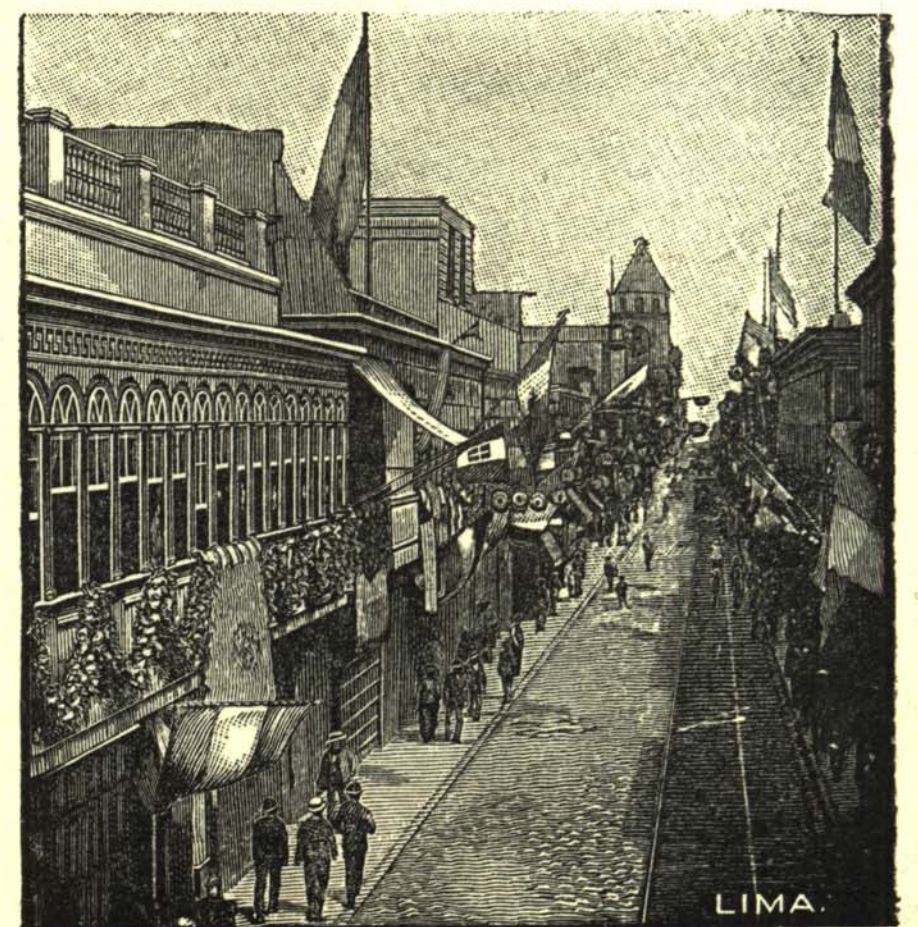
Venezuela—Coffee, cocoa, sugar, cotton, mahogany and rubber are the most valuable exports from Venezuela. Many hides are shipped from the Orinoco basin.

CARACAS and VALENCIA are the most important cities of this country.

Guiana—This country is owned by three European countries, England, France, and Holland. The climate is pleasant, owing to the trade winds, and strong land and sea breezes. Sugar, Cayenne pepper, coffee, rice, medicinal plants and spices are the chief productions.

BRITISH GUIANA is the largest division. GEORGETOWN is the capital. DUTCH GUIANA is the central part. PARAMARIBO is its capital.

FRENCH GUIANA is the eastern part of the country. Its capital is CAYENNE, after which Cayenne pepper is named. It is situated on an island with the same name. The French use this colony as a penal settlement.



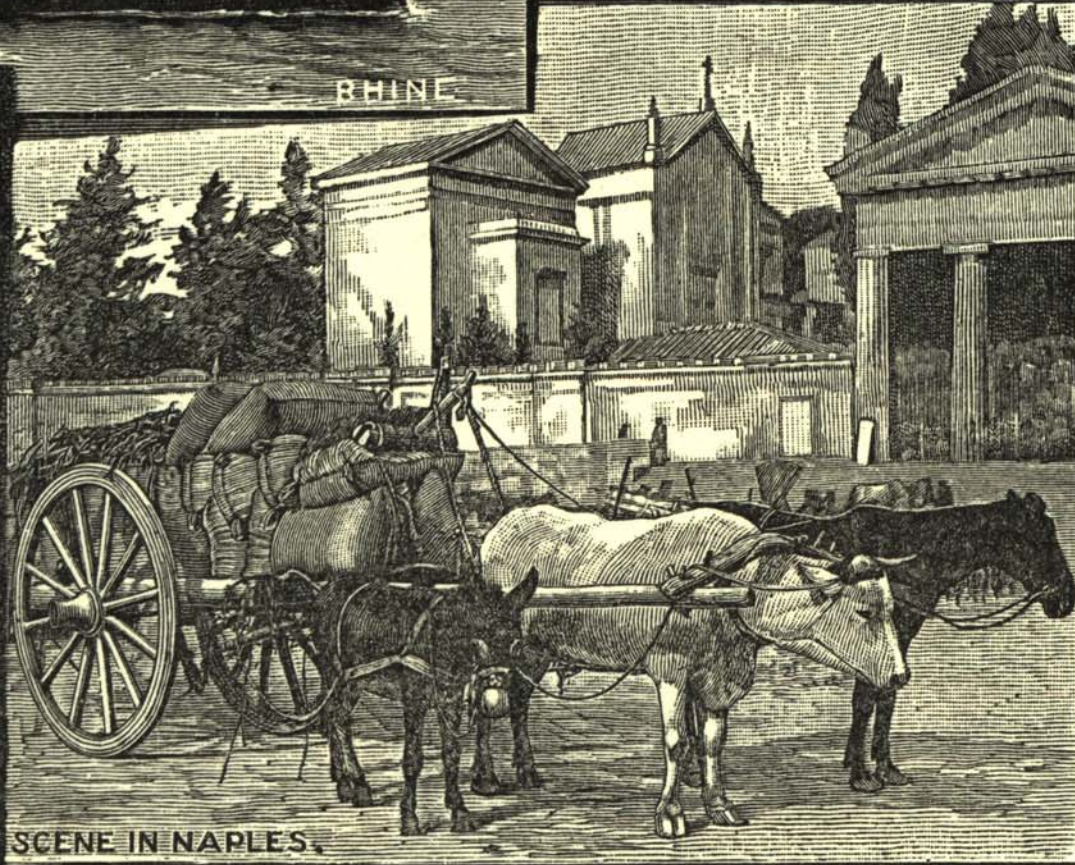
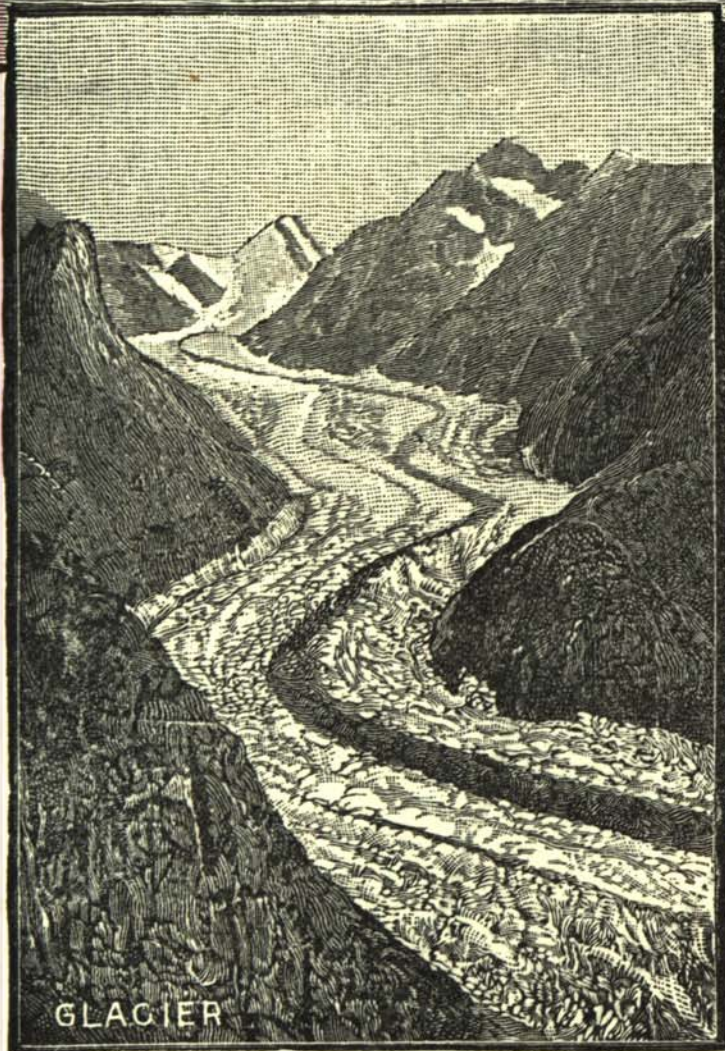
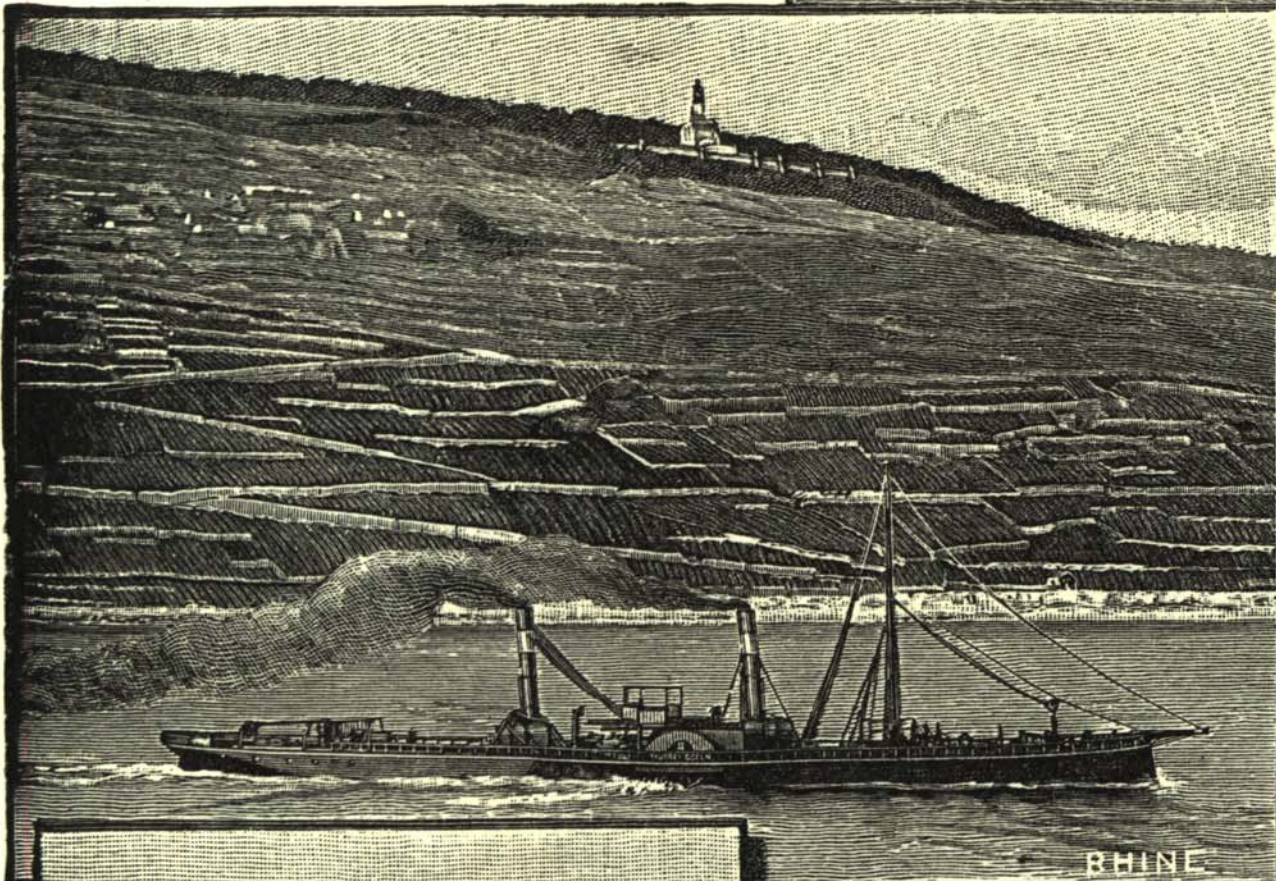
EUROPE.

1. Europe is a little larger in size than the Dominion of Canada. This continent forms the western part of Eurasia.

Europe may be divided into three regions,—mountainous highlands in the southwest, lower highlands in the northwest, with lowlands between the high-

Europe is in the path of the westerly winds. The west coast, therefore, receives the heaviest rainfall, but a fair amount of rain falls in the interior, though becoming less and less as the farther inland regions are reached. The rainfall around the Caspian sea is light.

Owing largely to the winds from over the



drift of the Gulf stream, the western part of Europe has a much milder climate than the Atlantic and Arctic coasts of America at the same distance from the equator.

The many seas which border on Europe help to give much of it an even climate; but the

to the north-east. Many peninsulas and seas make the coast of Europe more irregular than that of any other continent.

Almost the whole of this continent is in the cool belt. Only the southern peninsulas project into the warm belt.

land regions, and also spreading far

great plain in eastern Europe is far away from the Atlantic ocean, and therefore has hot summers and cold winters.

2. Map Studies.

Which is the larger,—North America or Europe? What oceans lie between these continents?

What seas and mountains bound Europe on the south? What mountains, river, and sea, separate the



RELIEF MAP OF EUROPE.

northern plain of Eurasia into two parts, —one in Asia and the other in Europe? Which of these parts is the larger?

Which half of Europe consists largely of highlands? Of plains? What countries are partly bounded by the Pyrenees? By the Caucasus and Ural mountains? By the Alps? By the Kiolen mountains? By the Carpathian mountains.

What countries border on the North sea? Baltic sea? Gulf of Bothnia? Bay of Biscay? Adriatic sea? Ægean sea? What great seas partly bound Russia? Where is the Irish sea? The strait of Dover? The strait of Gibraltar?

Where does the Volga river rise? Describe its course. Into what sea does it flow? In what general direction does the Danube river flow and into what sea? Where is the Seine river? The Thames? The Po? The Dnieper? The Rhine? The Rhone? The Elbe. *See map of Central Europe, page 167.*

Which heat belts cross Europe? In which of these belts is the broad middle part of the continent? What portion of Europe is in the warm belt? In which belt of winds does Europe lie? *See maps on pages 15, 23 and 24.*

Where are the Alps? In what general direction does the highland of south-western Europe extend? Compare it with the Rocky Mountain Island,—in trend,—in length,—in breadth. *See globe map, page 4.*

Where are the Valdai hills? Name two rivers flowing

into the Caspian sea. Describe the course of the Dwina river. Which one of these rivers flows in the coldest region?

Draw the general shape of Europe, —using three or four straight lines. Sketch each coast. Which has the more regular coast line,—North America or Europe?



Make a list of the countries and capitals.

Name five large bodies of water that partly surround the Scandinavian peninsula.

What sea is east of England and Scotland?

What three continents surround the Mediterranean sea?

3. The British Isles.

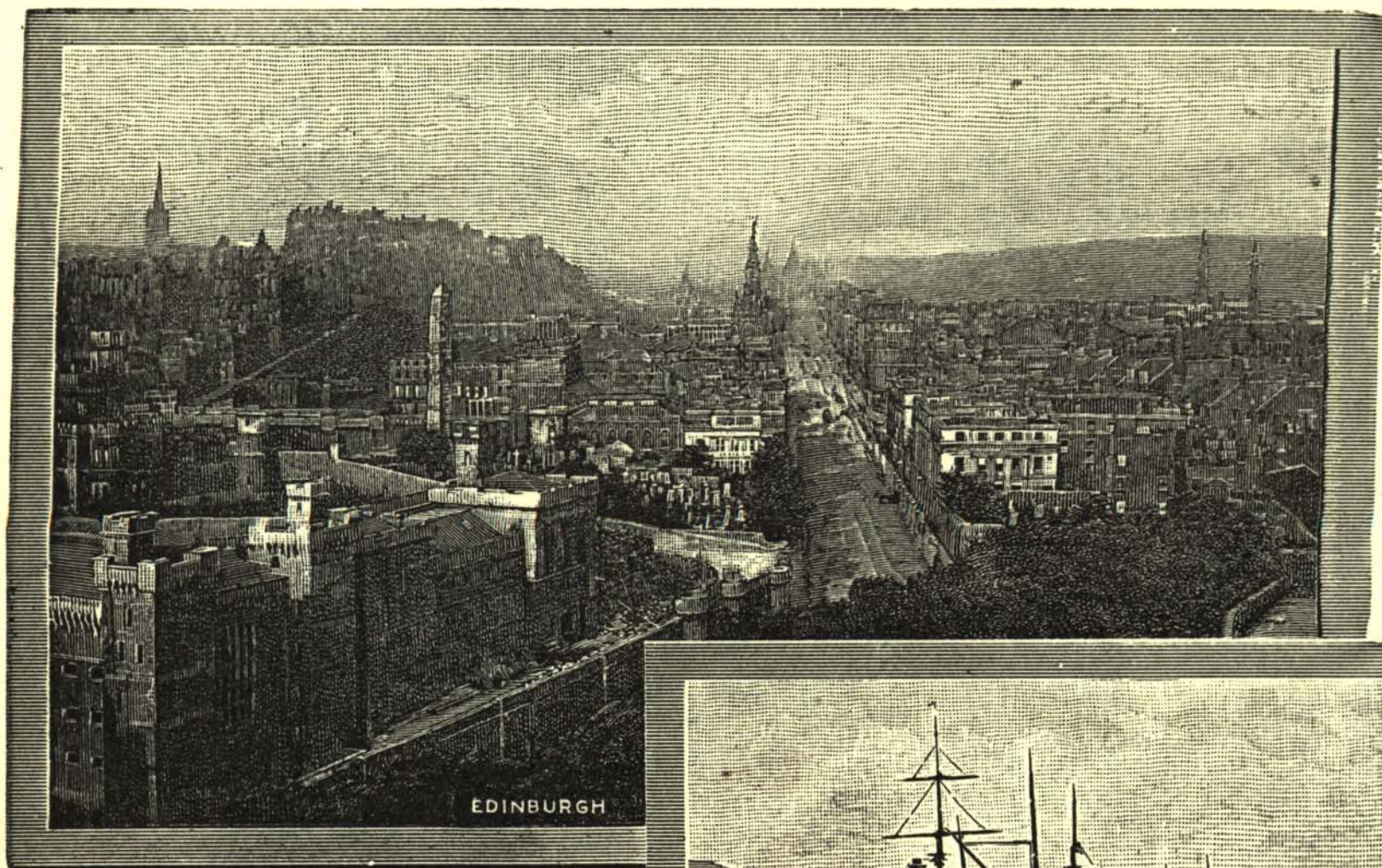
Two large islands and about 5,000 smaller ones form the group known as the British Isles. The largest of these is Great Britain, the most important island in the world; yet it is only one-fortieth as large as Canada. It is 600 miles long and from 32 to 360 miles wide; its area is 88,094 sq. miles. Ireland is second in size among the British Isles. It is 300 miles long and 175 miles in greatest width. Its area is 32,583 sq. miles.

These famous islands are at about the same distance as the Labrador peninsula from the equator, but they enjoy a mild climate and equable seasons, while the peninsula has a low temperature with very severe seasons. The prevailing south-west winds are tempered by the heat from the waters of the North Atlantic



Ocean and so warm the British Isles and the adjacent countries of Europe.

The government of these islands is a limited monarchy consisting of the Sovereign, Lords, and Commons. The sovereign holds office by right of birth, but his authority is



limited. There are two Houses of Parliament, the House of Commons and the House of Lords. The members of the former are elected by the people; those of the latter are nobles who hold their seats by right of inheritance of a peerage, or who have been created peers by the Crown, and bishops who have their seats on account of their rank.

A new law cannot be made nor an old one altered without the consent of the Sovereign and both Houses of Parliament. The carrying out of the laws is in the hands of a Prime Minister assisted by a *Cabinet*. The members of the Cabinet supervise foreign affairs, the treasury, the army, the navy, and the other departments.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

Map Studies.

Give the boundaries of England; of Wales. What country lies to the north-west of England? What strait and channel separates England from France?

What are the chief inlets on the east coast of England? On the south coast? On the west coast of England? On the west coast of Wales? What separates the Isle of Wight from the main land? Anglesey? What are the chief capes on the east coast? On the south? On the west coast of Wales? What is the south-west point of England called?

Name five rivers flowing into the North Sea. Name a large town situated near the mouth of each of



these rivers. What rivers flow into the English Channel from England? Compare the lengths of the rivers flowing into the North Sea and the English Channel.

Name four rivers flowing into Bristol Channel. What are the two largest rivers flowing into the Irish Sea from England?

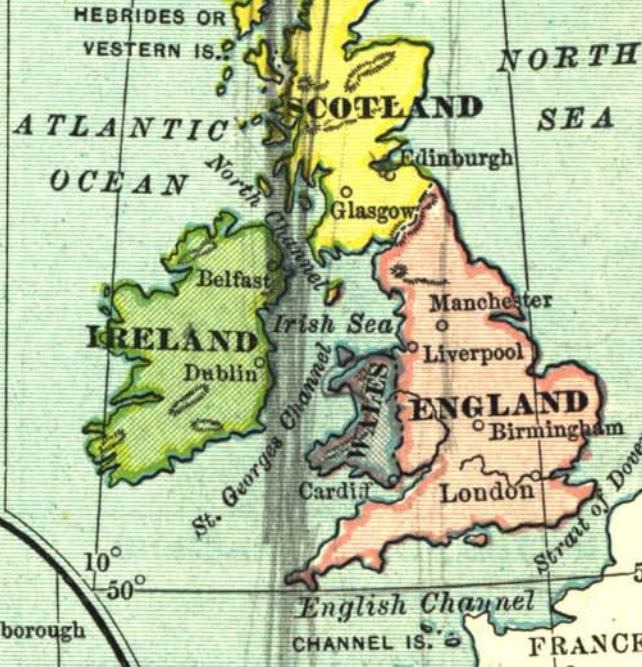
ENGLAND AND WALES.

Towns above 500,000 inhabitants: **Liverpool**
Towns above 100,000 inhabitants: **Bristol**
Towns above 50,000 inhabitants: **Plymouth**
Towns below 50,000 inhabitants: **Dover**
Capital of Country: ☆ County Seats: ● ● ●
Sites of Battles and dates: ✕ 1174
Elevations in English Feet: 2,600

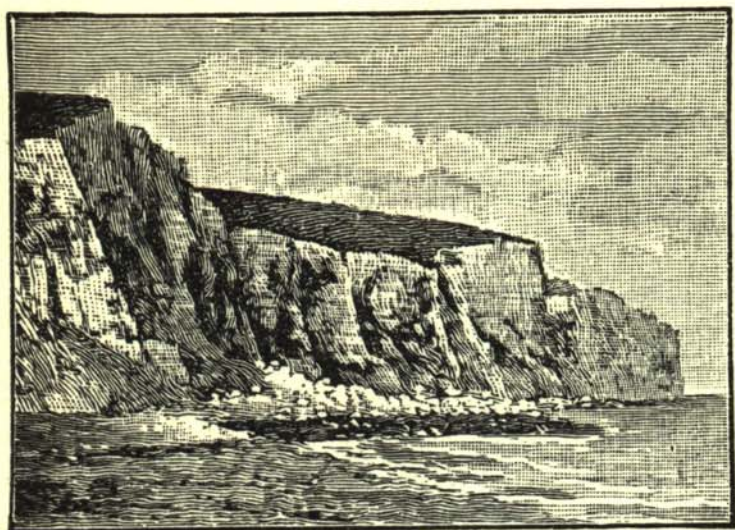
0 5 10 20 30 40 50 60 70
ENGLISH MILES.

BRITISH ISLES.

0 100 200 300
ENGLISH MILES.



On what river is Bristol situated? Hull? Newcastle? Liverpool? London? Greenwich?



Chalk Cliffs, Dover, England.

What counties border on the English Channel? On Scotland? On Wales? On the North Sea? On the Irish Sea? What counties of Wales have a sea coast? Name the inland counties of Wales; of England.

In what county is Liverpool? Birmingham? Hull? York? Newcastle on Tyne? Leeds? Portsmouth? Plymouth? Sheffield? Manchester? Birkenhead? Bristol? Brighton? Dover? Oxford? Cambridge?

The mountains in England and Wales are little more than high hills. They lie chiefly in the west. The following are the chief elevations:—

1. THE HIGHLANDS OF

DEVON AND CORN-

WALL.—These form three subdivisions:

(1) Exmoor, a tableland in Devonshire and Somerset; (2) Dartmoor, a table-

land with granite hills having mines of tin, copper and lead, and quarries of building stone; (3) the Cornish Heights, consisting of granite hills and moorlands; these yield lead, copper, tin, zinc, granite, and China clay.

2. THE CAMBRIAN GROUP OF MOUNTAINS.—These occupy the greater part of Wales. Snowdon (3,571 ft.) is the highest mountain in England and Wales. Valuable slate quarries are worked in the northern part of Wales.

3. THE CUMBRIAN MOUNTAINS.—These are found in Cumberland, Westmoreland, and the northern part of Lancashire.

4. THE PENNINE CHAIN.—This consists of hills and moorlands from 1,000 ft. to 2,000 ft. high, extending from Derbyshire to the Cheviot Hills.

5. THE CHEVIOT HILLS.—These are on the border between England and Scotland, and belong more to Scotland than to England.

The middle and south-east parts of England form a rich farming and grazing lowland, but it cannot raise enough grain and cattle to feed the millions of people who live in this country. Wheat, corn, beef, and apples are imported from Canada and other countries. Shiploads of cotton from the Southern States are sent to the English mills. In return, many kinds of cloth and manufactured goods are exported from England.

The main water-parting lies along the Pennine mountains, crosses the central plain by

low hills till it meets the southern divide in Gloucestershire. Thus it resembles a **T** inverted: thus **⌋**. These two water-partings divide the rivers into three systems:

1. The rivers which drain the eastern side of the central water-parting and flow into the North Sea.

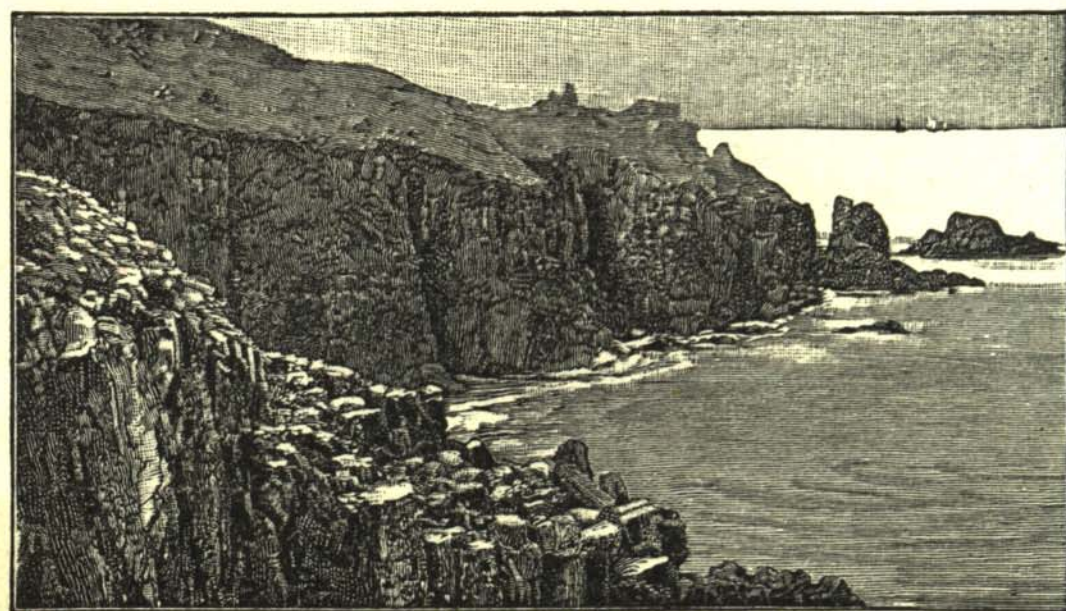
The eastern slope is

broad and gradual; hence its rivers are slow and navigable.

The most important are the *Tyne*, *Tees*, *Ouse* and *Trent* forming the *Humber*, *Great Ouse*, and *Thames*.



London Bridge.



Land's End, England.

2. The rivers which drain the western side of the central water-parting and flow into the Irish Sea and St. George's Channel.

These rivers are short and rapid, except the Severn, which is the longest river in England. The most important are the *Severn*, *Wye*, and the *Bristol Avon*; the *Mersey*, *Ribble*, and *Eden*.

3. The rivers which drain the southern side of the southern water-parting and flow into the English Channel.

These are short, shallow, and of little value to commerce.

LAKES.—The lakes of England lie chiefly in the "Lake District," a mountainous region in Cumberland and Westmoreland. From the centre of the Cumbrian group, Helvellyn, they radiate like the spokes of a wheel in all directions. The largest is Windermere, 14 miles long and a mile wide.

Others are Ulleswater, Thirlmere, Derwentwater, Buttermere, Wastwater, Coniston water, Grasmere, and Rydal water.

COAST FEATURES.—England has a very extensive coast line. From Berwick round the coast to the head of Solway Firth in a straight line from headland to headland, is about 1,000 miles, but so deeply is the coast indented that the total length of coast-line is about 2,400 miles.

EAST COAST.—The east coast is in general low; in some places embankments are necessary to prevent inroads of the sea.

The chief openings are the mouth of the Tees, the Humber, the Wash, and the estuary of the Thames.

The chief capes are Flamborough Head (160 ft.), Spurn Head, the Naze, North Foreland (184 ft.) and South Foreland (375 ft.).

The only islands are Holy Isle and Farne Islands, off the Northumberland coast. Sheppy and Thanet, on the coast of Kent, once islands, are so no longer.

SOUTH COAST.—The part of the coast east of the Isle of Wight is a low clay shore with here and there chalk cliffs; the part to the west is high and precipitous, indented by numerous deep cuts which form safe harbors.

The chief inlets are Portsmouth Harbor, Southampton Harbor, Poole Harbor, Weymouth Bay, Plymouth Sound, Falmouth Harbor, and Mount's Bay.

The chief capes are Beachy Head (564 ft.), Selsea Bill, St. Catharine's Point and the Needles on the Isle of Wight, St. Alban's Head, Portland Bill, Start Point, the Lizard, and Land's End.

The Isle of Wight is 22 miles long and 13 miles wide. The Channel Islands, which lie close to the coast of France and geographically belong to France, have

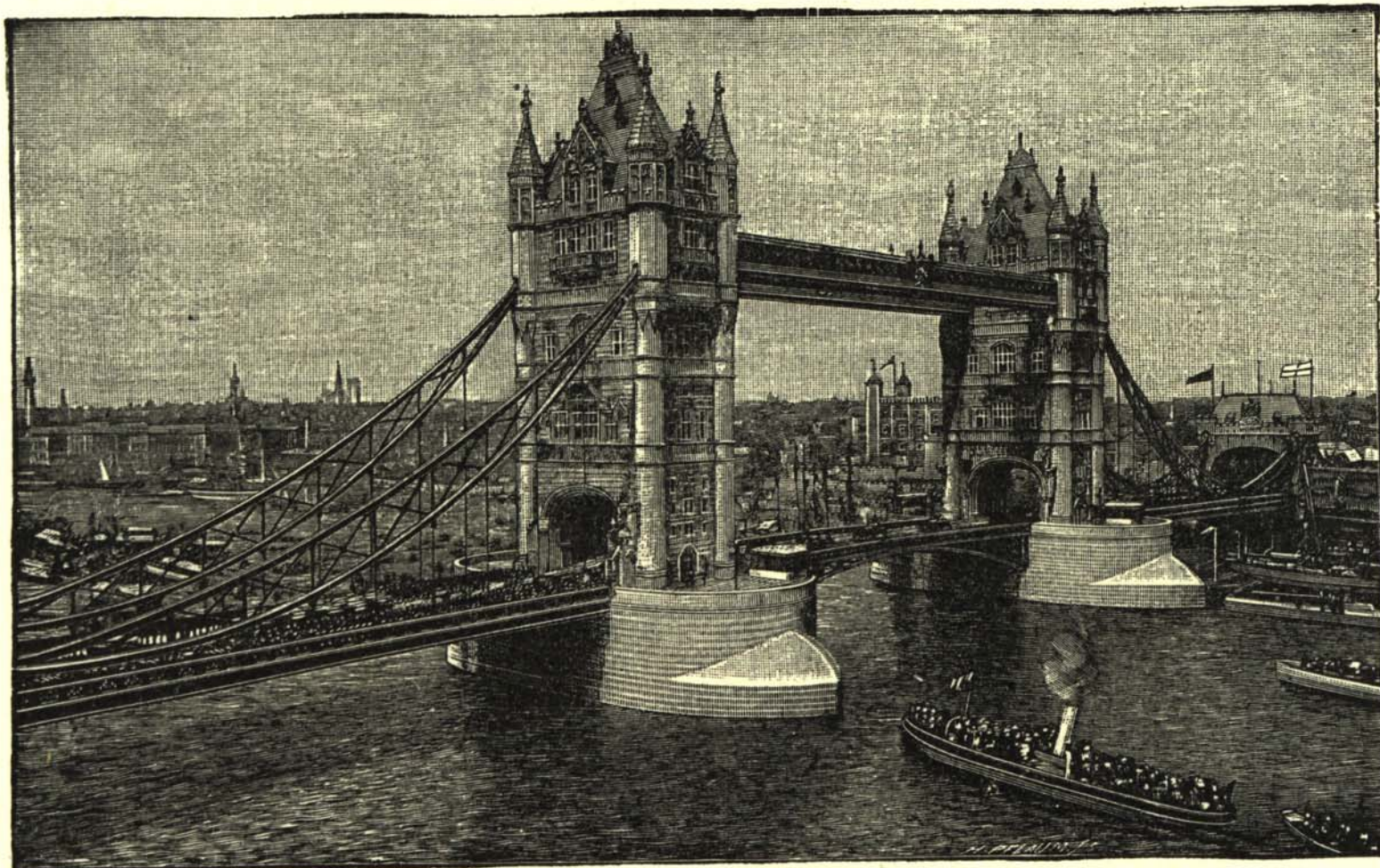
been a portion of the Kingdom of England since the Norman conquest. The chief are Alderney, Guernsey, Jersey, and Sark.

THE WEST COAST.—The west coast is in general bold, mountainous, and rocky. It is broken up by large openings.

The chief inlets are the Solway Firth; Morecambe Bay; the mouths of the Ribble, Mersey, and Dee; Cardigan Bay; Milford Haven; Carmarthen Bay; and Bristol Channel.

The chief capes are St. Bees Head, Great Orme's Head, Braich-y-pwll, St. David's Head, Worms Head, and Hartland Head.

The chief islands off the west coast are the Isle of



Tower Bridge, London.

Man ; Anglesea ; the Scilly Isles, a group of 145 islets, which send flowers and vegetables to London.

INDUSTRIES.—England is a manufacturing and commercial country. Agriculture has been gradually giving place to trade and manufactures. This is owing to the development of the coal mines and the application of coal to the production of steam power.

The three staple manufactures are those in which cotton, iron, and wool are the raw materials.

The cotton-manufacture is the most valuable, and is situated mainly upon the coal field in south-east Lancashire. This is a region of cheap coal and iron. The climate is moist, a condition essential for the spinning and weaving of cotton. The raw material is readily obtained through the seaport of Liverpool. Manchester is the centre of this industry. Other towns engaged in its manufacture are Salford, Oldham, Bolton, Blackburn, Preston, and many more.

Nottingham, which manufactures cotton hosiery, machine-made net and lace, is the only other town at a distance from the "Cotton Capital," Manchester, engaged in making cotton goods.

The raw cotton is obtained chiefly from the United States, Egypt, and India.

England is noted for the smelting of iron, the manufacture of steel, and the making of iron and steel goods, as machinery, cutlery, and hardware.

The abundance of iron ore, coal, and limestone in the region of the great coal fields

causes iron-smelting to be carried on chiefly in these regions. Iron and steel goods are manufactured mainly in two districts:—(1) In the "Black Country," situated in South Staffordshire, and the adjacent parts of Warwickshire and Worcestershire, with Birmingham for the centre; (2) In South Yorkshire, the centre of the manufacture being Sheffield,

noted for its making of cutlery.

The West Riding of Yorkshire has long been the chief seat of the woollen industry. The principal centres of this manufacture are Leeds and Bradford.

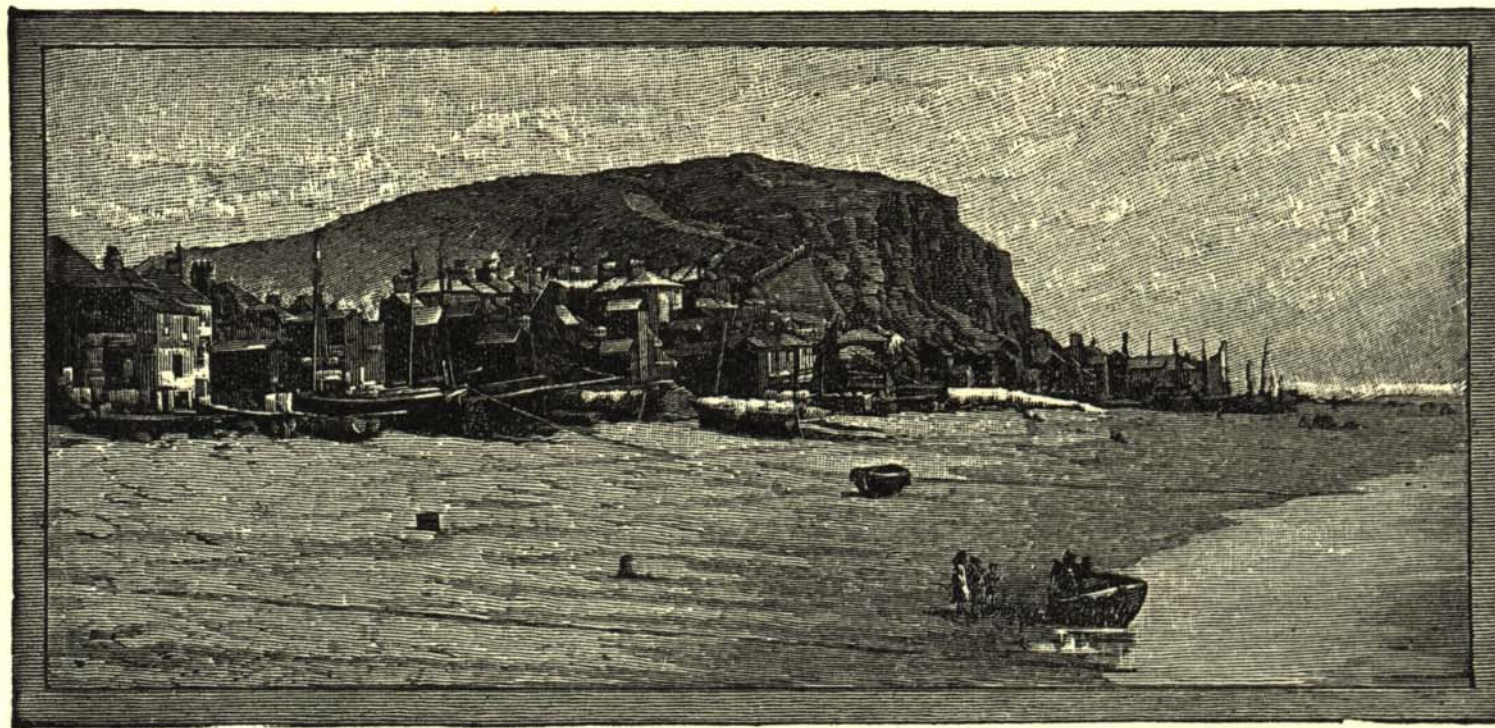
Other towns engaged in it are Halifax, Huddersfield, Dewsbury, Wakefield, &c.

The raw wool is obtained chiefly from Australia and South Africa.

OTHER IMPORTANT MANUFACTURES.—

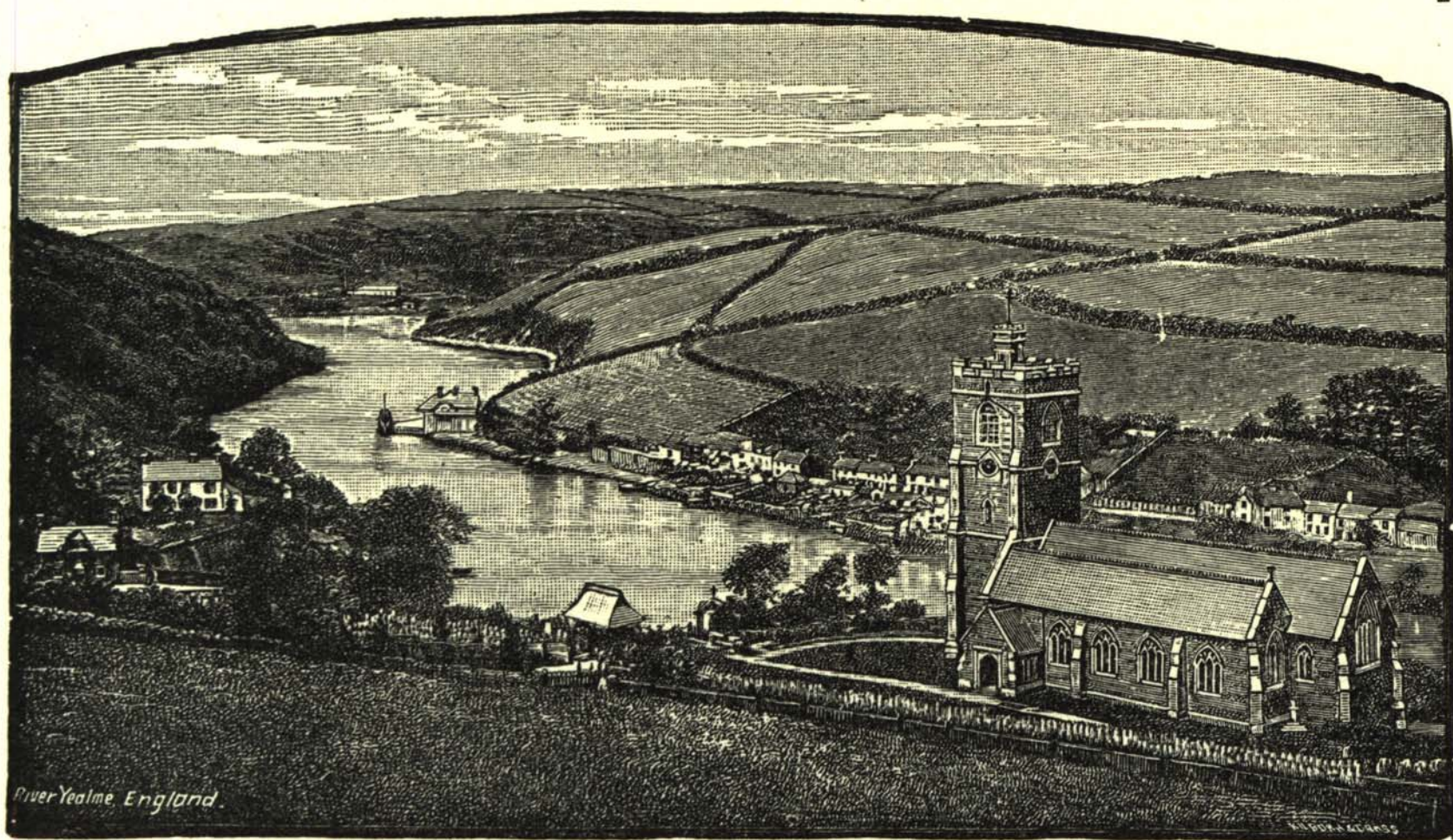
1. The making of earthenware and porcelain. The centre is the district called the Potteries, in North Staffordshire.
2. The silk industry. This is carried on at Derby, Coventry, Macclesfield and other places.
3. Glassware is manufactured at St. Helens, Birmingham, Stourbridge, and Smethwick.
4. Paper is made in districts where there is a good supply of pure water, in Kent, Derbyshire, and Lancashire.
5. Chemicals are made at many places, as Newcastle, Swansea, Jarrow, Widnes, St. Helens, &c.
6. Sugar refining is carried on at London and Liverpool.

COMMERCE.—The foreign commerce of England and Wales is of greater value than that of any other country. The imports consist



Hastings, England.

mainly of food and raw materials. The six chief articles imported are grain, raw cotton, wool, sugar, metals, and timber. These are mainly brought from the British possessions, the United States, and the adjacent European countries. The exports consist chiefly of coal and manufactured goods, as cottons, woollens, and articles of iron and steel.



Among the chief causes that have made England and Wales the greatest trading country in the world are the following:—

1. A favorable climate.
2. The abundance of raw material, such as coal and iron.
3. Its geographical position, being near the centre of the land surface of the earth.
4. The abundance of natural harbors and large number of navigable rivers, together with the nearness of all parts to the coast.
5. The great number and extent of the colonies.

The chief seaports are London, Liverpool, Cardiff, Newcastle, Hull, North and South Shields, Southampton, Sunderland, Swansea, and Bristol.

London controls most of the British trade with India, Australia, and the mainland of Europe; also a large part of the trade with tropical America. From China and India this great port receives tea, silk, sugar, coffee, spices, indigo and other products of south-eastern Asia. Greece sends currants; Italy and Spain, olive oil and wine.

From the Baltic ports lumber, wheat, cattle, and wool reach London; from tropical America sugar, coffee, hides, rubber, and cocoa. Australia ships wool, gold, and frozen meat; Canada, live stock, grain, and dairy products.

Liverpool is the second English seaport, and the centre of the American trade. Canada and the United States send more products to Liverpool than to any other part of the world. Most valuable among these are cotton, grain, and meats. Large quantities of wool from Argentina and Australia are also received at Liverpool.

The exports of Liverpool are chiefly cloth, manufactured from wool, cotton, or silk; cutlery and other kinds of hardware; heavy iron goods, as engines, rails, and armor-plates.

The rise and fall of the tide in the Mersey at Liverpool is so great that many steamers enter enclosed docks to load and unload. In these docks the water can always be kept at the same level. Other steamers

use great landing stages that float, and thus rise and fall with the tide. It is connected with its suburb, Birkenhead, by a tunnel under the river.

Cardiff is the third British seaport. It exports coal and iron, and imports timber and ores.

Hull has a large Baltic trade, and is the fourth English seaport.

Newcastle exports coal, builds ships, and has manufactures of engines, fire-arms, and chemicals.

North and South Shields, at the mouth of the Tyne, exports coal.

Southampton, the chief seaport in the south of England, is a large port for passenger steamers to all parts of the world.

Sunderland, at the mouth of the Wear, exports coal and has large shipbuilding yards.

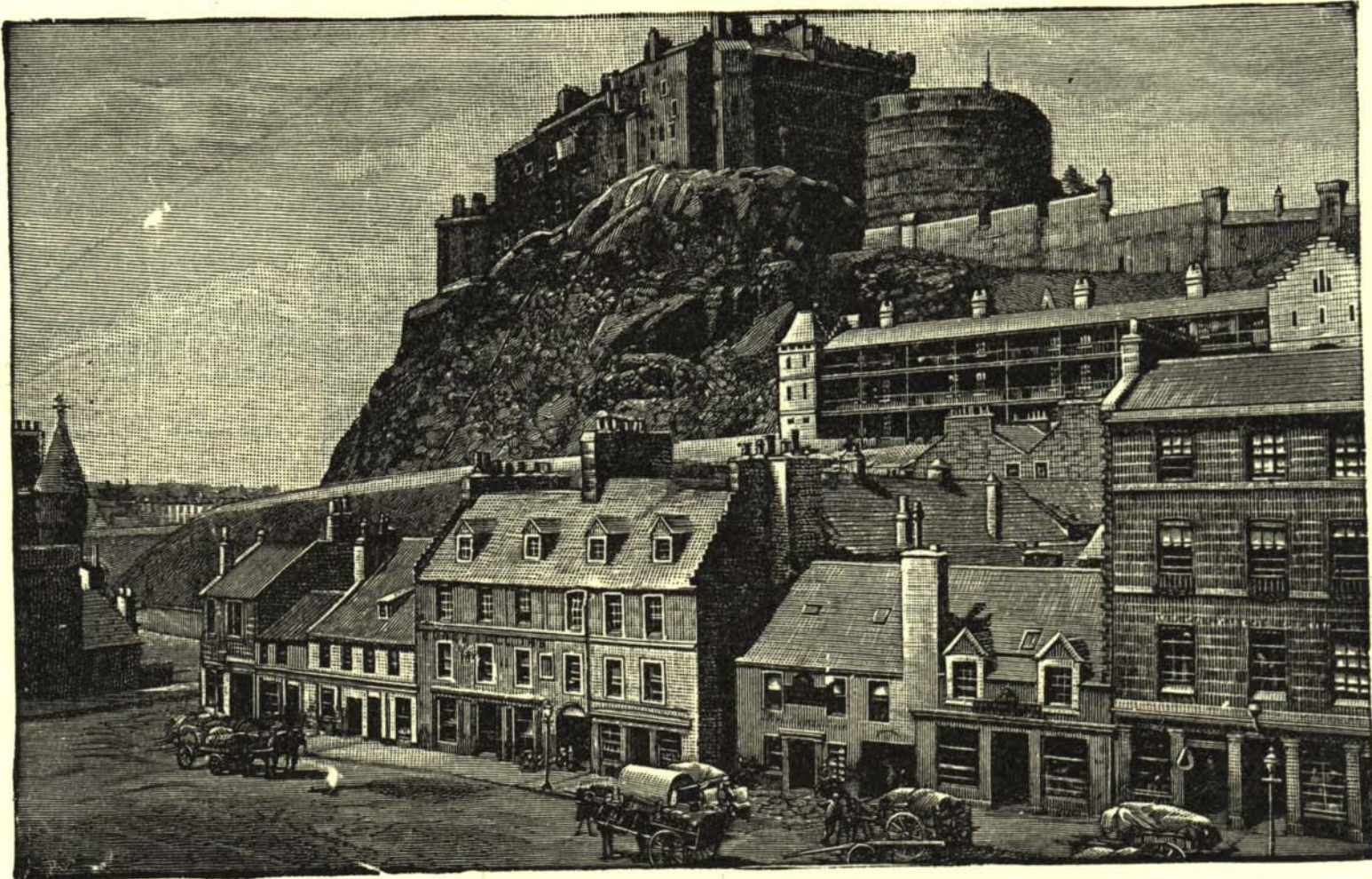
Swansea exports coal and is the great seat of the copper-smelting industry. Great quantities of copper ore are imported and the metallic copper is exported.

Bristol's trade is chiefly with Ireland, the West Indies, and South America.

England is divided for local government into forty, and Wales into twelve shires or counties.

The Counties are as follows:—

1. *The six northern*—Northumberland, Durham, York, Cumberland, Westmoreland, Lancaster.
2. *The five eastern*—Lincoln, Cambridge, Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex.
3. *The fourteen midland*—Stafford, Derby, Nottingham, Worcester, Leicester, Rutland, Warwick, Northampton, Huntingdon, Oxford, Buckingham, Bedford, Hertford, Middlesex.
4. *The five western*—Cheshire, Shropshire, Herefordshire, Monmouth, Gloucester.
5. *The five south-eastern*—Kent, Surrey, Sussex, Berkshire, Hampshire.
6. *The five south-western*—Wilts, Dorset, Somerset, Devon, Cornwall.
7. *The six counties of North Wales*—Anglesea, Carnarvon, Denbigh, Flint, Montgomery, and Merionth.
8. *The six counties of South Wales*—Cardigan, Radnor, Pembroke, Carmarthen, Brecknock, and Glamorgan.



Edinburgh Castle, Scotland.

SCOTLAND.

Map Studies.

How is Scotland separated from England? Give the boundaries of Scotland on the East, North, and West. What separates Scotland from Ireland? What separates the mainland from the Orkney Islands? From the Outer Hebrides?

What two large firths are on the east coast? Name the largest inlets on the west coast.

What is the most northerly point of Scotland called? The most southerly? The most easterly?

Name three rivers flowing into the North Sea. Into what water does the Clyde flow? The Nith? The Tweed? The Doon? The Dee?

On what river is Stirling situated? Aberdeen? Glasgow? Dundee? Greenock?

Which is the largest of the Outer Hebrides? What separates Skye from the Outer Hebrides? Where are Staffa and Iona Islands? Where is Bell or Inch Cape Rock?

What three counties border on England? Name the two most northern counties on the mainland. Name the most easterly county. What counties border on the Firth of Forth? Which is the most south-western county? Name the counties bordering on the Firth of Tay. Which counties border on the North

Sea? On the Atlantic Ocean? On the North Channel?

What city is situated on the Clyde? At the northern end of the Caledonian Canal? Near Leith on the Firth of Forth?

In what county is Edinburgh? Ayr? Dumfries? Hawick? Dundee? St. Andrews? Bannockburn? Inverness? Glasgow?

Scotland consists of a southern upland region, a lowland plain, and a northern mountain mass. Two depressions, Glen More and the Lowlands, divide the country into three mountainous regions. These are the following:—

1. The Northern Highlands, which include the mountain ranges north of Glen More.

2. The Grampians, which form the Central Highlands. These stretch across the country from east to west and include the highest land in Great Britain, as Ben Nevis (4,406 ft.), Ben Macdhui (4,300 ft.), Cairntoul (4,200 ft.).

3. The Southern upland region. This lies south of the Firth of Forth and contains a number of low ranges of hills.

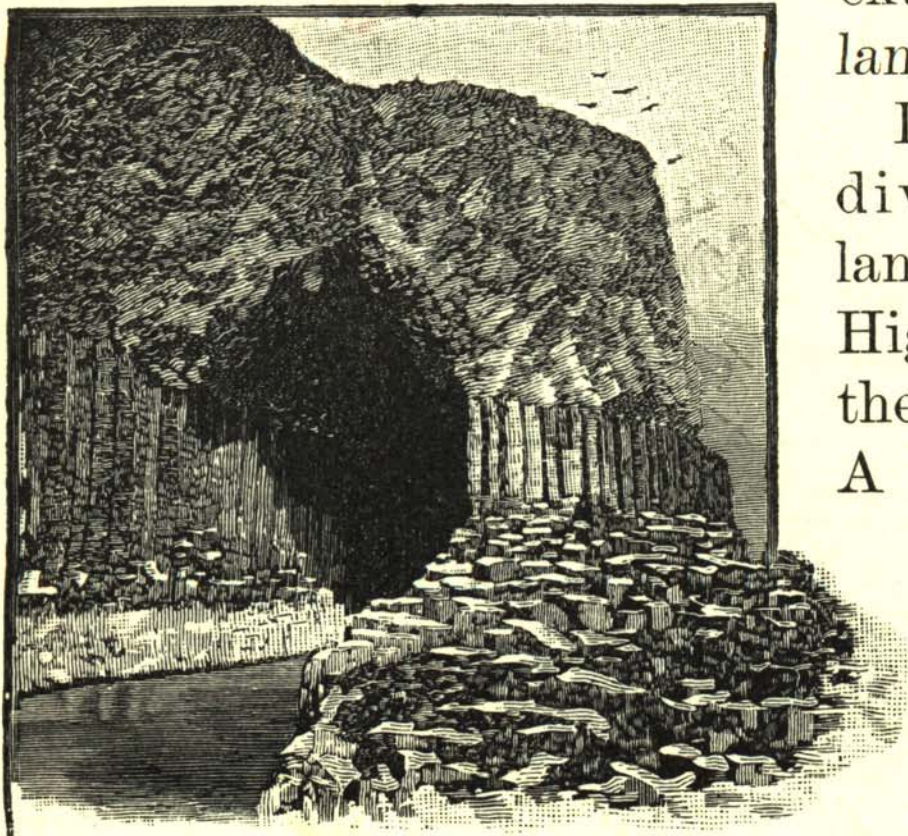
SCOTLAND.

Towns above 500,000 inhabitants:..... Glasgow
Towns above 100,000 inhabitants:..... Dundee
Towns above 25,000 inhabitants:..... Perth
Towns below 25,000 inhabitants:..... Aberfeldy
Capital of Country: * County Seats: (C) (S)
Sites of Battles and dates: X 1090
Elevations in English Feet:..... 2,693

ENGLISH MILES.
0 5 10 20 30 40 50 60



A continuous belt of high ground from Cape Wrath to Loch Lomond forms the "Wind and water-parting" of the country. Between the Grampians and the southern uplands is the only plain of any considerable extent in Scotland.



Fingal's Cave, Isle of Staffa.

It is usual to divide Scotland into the Highlands and the Lowlands. A line drawn from Dunbarton on the Clyde to Stonehaven on the North

Sea marks the division between these two; the Highlands lie to the north-west of this line and the Lowlands to the south-east of it.

RIVER SYSTEMS.—Since the water-parting of Scotland lies near the west coast, the rivers of the eastern slope are much the longer. The largest are the Tweed, Forth, Tay, Dee, Spey, and Ness. On the western slope the largest are the Clyde and Ayr.

The Clyde, between Glasgow and Greenock, is the greatest shipbuilding river in the world. The many manufacturing towns in the basin of this river make it the first commercial river of Scotland. Its lower basin "forms one vast town of mining works and factories for iron, silk, wool, and cotton."

The Tay discharges the greatest amount of water of any river in Great Britain.

At Queensferry the Forth is crossed by the Forth Bridge, one of the greatest bridges in the world.

LAKES.—Scotland abounds in lakes, called lochs, noted for their beauty and surrounded by most picturesque mountain scenery. Lying in valleys they are generally long and narrow. The most important are Lomond, Awe, Ness, Tay, Katrine, and Leven.

COAST FEATURES.—The coast of Scotland is much indented and is about 2,500 miles long. No part of the country is more than 40 miles from sea-water. The east coast from Tarbet Ness to the Firth of Forth is generally flat and sandy; from St. Abb's Head to the Tweed it is bold and rocky.

The chief openings are the firths of Forth, Tay, Moray, Cromarty, and Dornoch.

The chief headlands are St. Abb's Head, Fife Ness, Buchan Ness, Kinnaird's Head and Tarbet Ness.

The islands on the east coast are all small, such as Bell (Inch Cape) Rock, Bass Rock, Inchkeith.

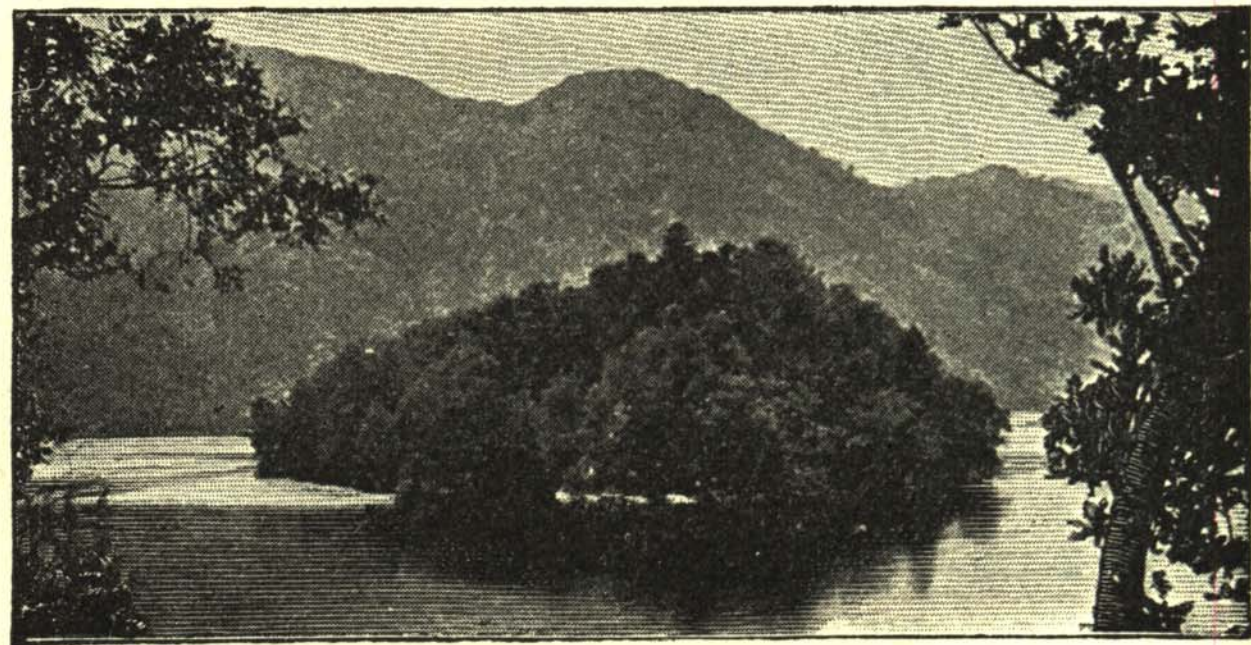
The south coast is low and flat. The chief openings are Luce Bay and Wigtown Bay. The chief capes are the Mull of Galloway and Burrow Head

The west coast is bold and formed mainly of hard rocks. It presents a succession of deep inlets, bold headlands and long peninsulas. The chief inlets are the firths of Solway, Lorne, and Clyde and the narrow salt-water indentations known as lochs, the chief of which are Lochs Broom, Linnhe, Fyne, and Ryan.

The chief capes are the Mull of Kintyre and Ardnarmurchan Point.

The Hebrides number about 500 islands. They are subdivided into the Inner and the Outer Hebrides. Skye and Lewis are the largest of them. Staffa has Fingal's cave, and Iona has remains of ancient churches. In the Firth of Clyde are Arran and Bute, forming Buteshire.

The chief straits are Kilbrannan Sound, the sounds of Jura, Mull, Sleat, the Minch and the Little Minch.



Loch Katrine.

A sound is a narrow strait, and got its name because it could be swum across.

The huge sea-cliffs forming the northern coast are wild and desolate.

The chief inlets are Thurso Bay, Dunnet Bay, and Loch Eriboll.

The capes are Duncansby Head, Dunnet Head, and Cape Wrath.

The northern islands are the following :—

1. The Orkney group, consisting of 67 islands, of which about 40 are inhabited. The largest is Pomona, or Mainland.

2. The Shetland group, consisting of over 100 islands, of which between 30 and 40 are inhabited.

The inhabitants of these two groups are engaged in fishing, farming, and knitting.

INDUSTRIES.—Scotland is noted for skilful farming. The chief crops are oats, barley, wheat, potatoes, and turnips. In the Highlands, the rearing of cattle and the fisheries are the chief branches of industry. Mining, manufactures, and commerce are, however, the chief industries of the country. Manufactures are largely pursued in the Lowlands, within the coal and iron district between the Forth and the Clyde.

The *Cotton* manufacture is carried on chiefly in Glasgow and Paisley.

Woollens are manufactured chiefly in the valley of the Tweed, at Galashiels, Hawick, &c.

Linen and *Jute* manufacturing is centered at Dundee.

Paper is extensively made in Aberdeenshire and near Edinburgh.

Shipbuilding is chiefly carried on on the Clyde. Here the largest steamers and ironclads are built.

The commerce of Scotland resembles that of England. The imports are chiefly raw materials for manufacture and foodstuffs. The exports are manufactured goods, together

with a considerable amount of farm produce, as cattle, sheep, and oats to England.

The chief ports are Glasgow and Greenock on the west, and Leith, Aberdeen and Dundee on the east.

Glasgow is the second city in Great Britain and the greatest shipbuilding centre in the world. Its success is due to its fine harbor, its nearness to mines of coal and iron ore, and to the development of trade with America.

Greenock refines sugar, and builds iron and steel ships.

Leith is the port of Edinburgh.

Dundee imports jute from India, and flax from Russia. It exports linen, jute and hemp goods.

Aberdeen, the "Granite City," has a large coasting and fishing trade.

Scotland is divided into 32 counties, which may be classified as follows:—

1. The thirteen South-Lowland counties—Kirkcudbright, Roxburgh, Wighton, Dumfries, Selkirk, Ayr, Lanark, Peebles, Berwick, Haddington, Edinburgh, Linlithgow, and Renfrew.

2. Theseven North-Lowland counties—Dunbarton, Stirling, Clackmannan, Fife, Kinross, Kincardine, and Forfar.

3. The three South-Highland counties—Bute, Argyle, and Perth.

4. The nine North-Highland counties—Aberdeen, Banff, Elgin, Nairn, Inverness, Ross and Cromarty, Sutherland, Caithness, and Orkney and Shetland.

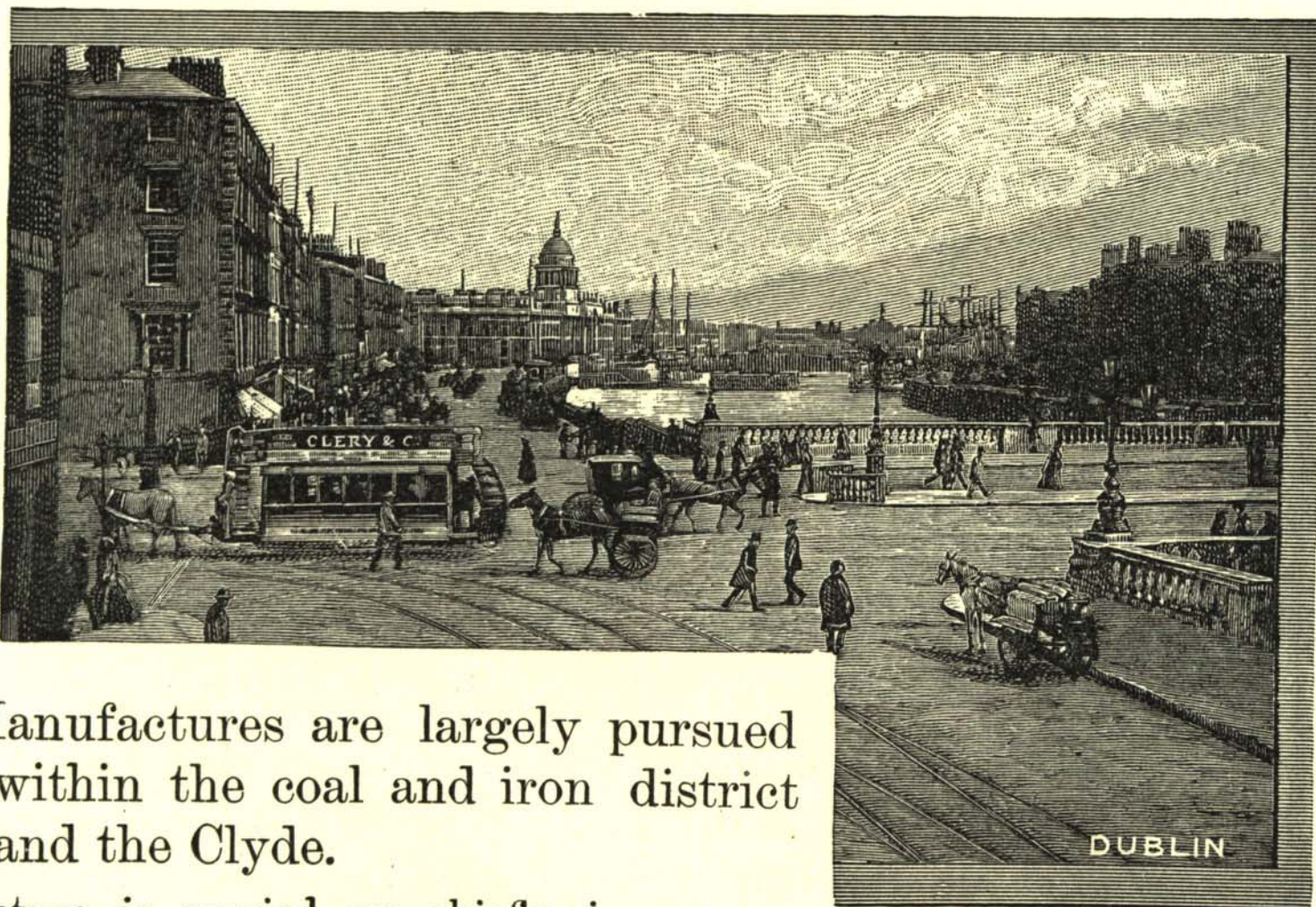
IRELAND.

Map Studies.

How is Ireland separated from Scotland? Give the boundaries of Ireland.

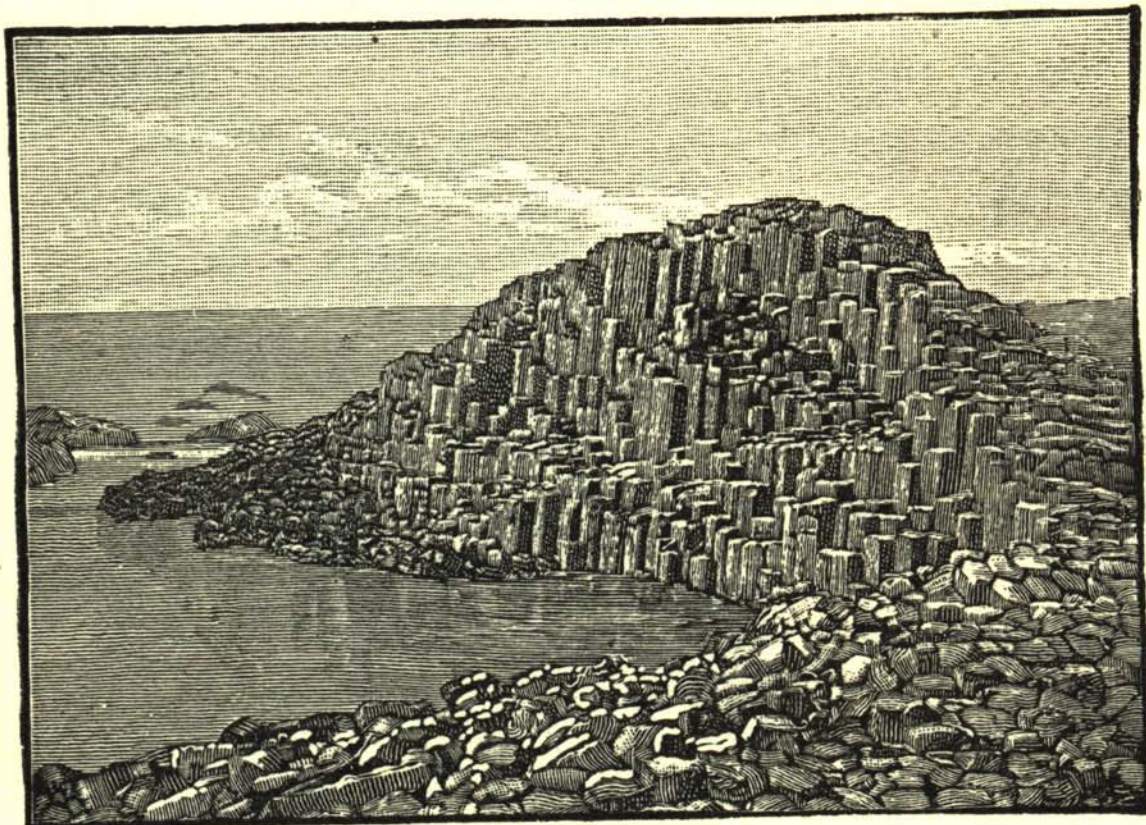
Name the chief inlets on the east coast. On the north coast. On the west coast. On the south coast.

Name the most northerly point in Ireland; the most southerly; the most westerly.



What rivers flow into the Irish Sea? In what direction does the Shannon flow? The Barrow? The Bann? The Foyle? The Boyne? The Liffey?

Into what body of water does the Lee empty? The Shannon? The Boyne? The Bann? The Barrow?



Giant's Causeway, Ireland.

On what river is Dublin situated? Cork? Londonderry? Limerick? Belfast? Galway?

What counties border on the northern coast? On the eastern coast? On the southern coast? On the western coast? What counties border on the North Channel? On the Irish Sea?

Which is the most southerly county? The most northern? The most eastern? The most western?

What city is situated on the Liffey? On the Lee? On the Foyle? On the Shannon?

In what county is the City of Waterford? City of Cork? Belfast? Dublin? Limerick? Londonderry?

Ireland is a great interior plain, broken here and there by hills and surrounded by short ranges of mountains which lie chiefly round the coast. The central plain, which covers about one-quarter of the country, is 160 miles long and 120 miles wide. It is low and boggy in character and is nowhere more than 300 feet high.

The highlands may be arranged into four groups:—

1. The Northern Highlands, including the mountains of Antrim and Donegal.

2. The Eastern Highlands, including the Wicklow mountains and the Mourne mountains in the County of Down.

3. The Southern Highlands, including the Knockmealdown and Galtee mountains.

4. The Western Highlands, including the mountains of Kerry, the Connemara mountains, and the Nephin Beg mountains.

RIVER SYSTEMS.—With the exception of the Shannon, the rivers of Ireland rise in the heights which border the central plain, and fall into the sea on the same side of the island as that on which they rise. Hence they are short.

The most important are the Bann and the Foyle on the north; the Boyne and Liffey on the east; the Barrow, Blackwater, and Lee on the south; and the Shannon in the west.

The *Shannon* is the largest river in the British Isles. It rises in the County of Cavan, flows through Loughs Allen, Ree, and Derg and enters the Atlantic by a broad and deep estuary 60 miles long.

LAKES.—Owing to the dampness of the climate, combined with the nature of the surface, there are many lakes in Ireland.

The most important are Neagh, Erne, Conn, Corrib, Mask, Ree, Derg, and Killarney.

The largest is Lough Neagh, and the most beautiful the Lakes of Killarney.

COAST FEATURES.—The north coast is bold and rocky. The Giant's Causeway is one of the natural wonders of the world. It is 2,000 feet long, 1,000 feet broad and is composed of immense basaltic pillars.



Scene on the Coast of Ireland.

The chief openings in this coast are Loughs Foyle and Swilly.

The principal headlands are Fair Head, 14 miles from Scotland, Ben-

gore Head, Malin Head, and Horn Head.

On the north coast the chief islands are Rathlin and Tory.

IRELAND.

Reference:

Towns above 100,000 inhabitants: **Belfast**
Towns above 25,000 inhabitants: **Cork**
Towns below 25,000 inhabitants: **Sligo**
Capital of Country: **County Seats**:
Sites of Battles and dates: 1690 x
Elevations in English Feet: 2,693

ENGLISH MILES
0 5 10 20 30 40



The east coast is generally flat, sandy and regular. There are many sandbanks and sunken rocks to obstruct navigation.

The chief inlets are Wexford Harbor, Dublin Bay, Dundalk Bay, Dundrum Bay, and Belfast Lough. The main headlands are Wicklow Head and Howth Head.

The islands off this coast are small and unimportant.

The south coast has several fine harbors, as Cork, Youghal, Dungarvan, and Waterford.

The principal capes are Clear and Mizen. There are no important islands off this coast. Clear is the largest.

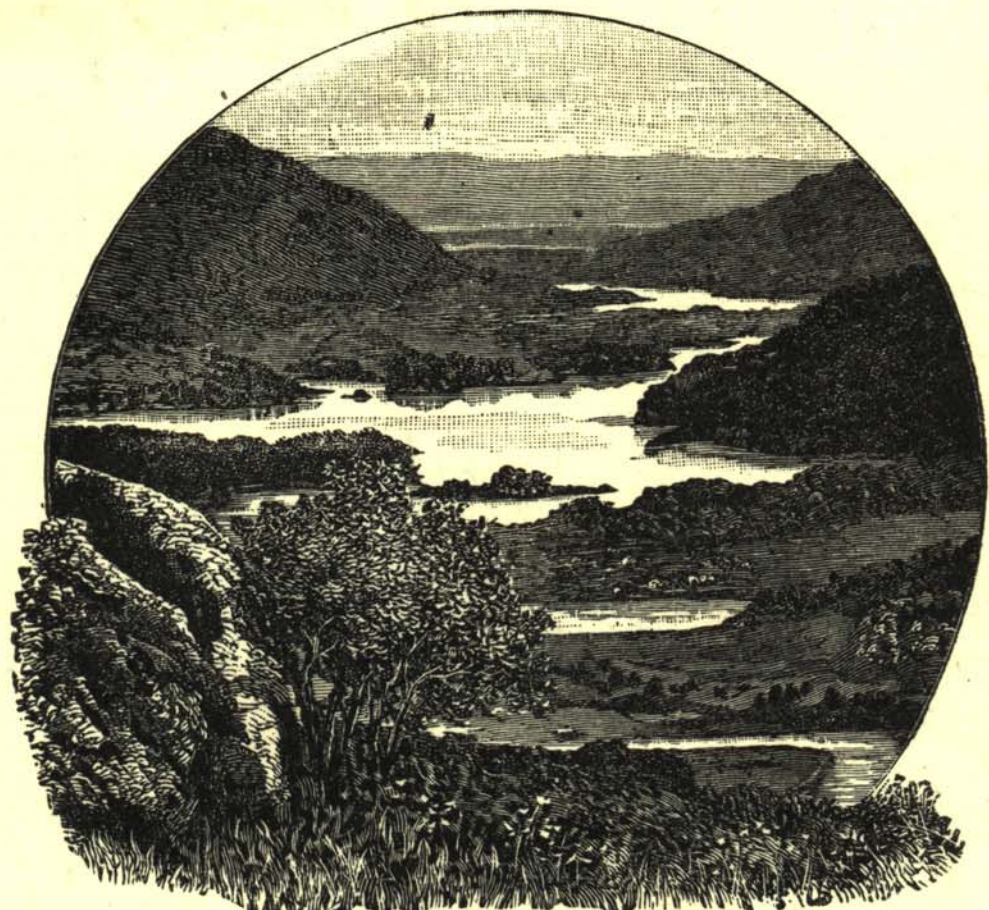
The west coast is high, rocky and being exposed to the full force of the Atlantic, is much roken and very irregular.

The principal openings in the west are the Bays of Donegal, Sligo, Clew, Galway, Dingle, and Bantry, and the estuary of the Shannon.

The chief capes are Rossan Head, Achill Head, Loop Head, and Dunmore Head.

There are many islands off this coast, but none are of any considerable magnitude. The most important is Valentia, the terminus of the submarine cable to Newfoundland.

The soil of Ireland is generally fertile. Oats and potatoes are commonly grown. Cattle, sheep and pigs are extensively raised.



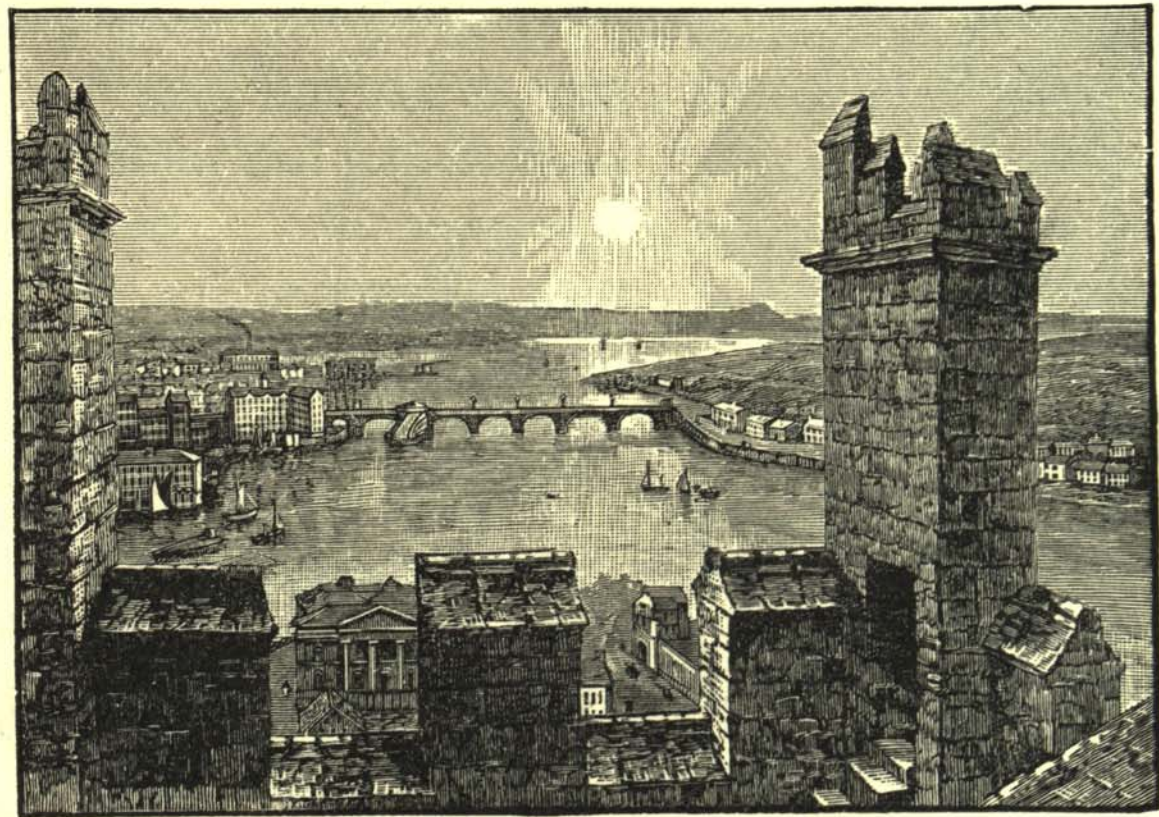
Lakes of Killarney, Ireland.

Manufactures flourish, principally in the north and east, where the linen manufacture is pursued on a large scale, and woollens and cotton goods are also manufactured.

Linen is made chiefly at Belfast, Armagh, Largan, and Newry.

Shipbuilding is centered at Belfast, where large iron and steel vessels are built.

Lace is extensively made by the women of the west.



Shannon River, Ireland.

Ireland has few minerals. There is considerable iron ore, but little coal wherewith to work it. Hence her manufactures are much less extensive than those of Great Britain.

The commerce of Ireland is chiefly with Great Britain. The imports are coal, manufactured goods, and tea, sugar, and coffee. The chief importing ports are Dublin, Cork, and Belfast.

The exports are linen, and agricultural products.

The chief ports are Dublin, Belfast, Cork, Waterford, Limerick, Galway, and Londonderry.

Dublin is the capital. It has shipbuilding yards, and manufactures poplins and woollen goods.

Belfast is the principal manufacturing centre of Ireland. This pre-eminence is due to the following causes: 1. It is situated on the Ulster coal field. 2. Coal and iron can be readily imported from Great Britain. 3. The climate favors linen making.

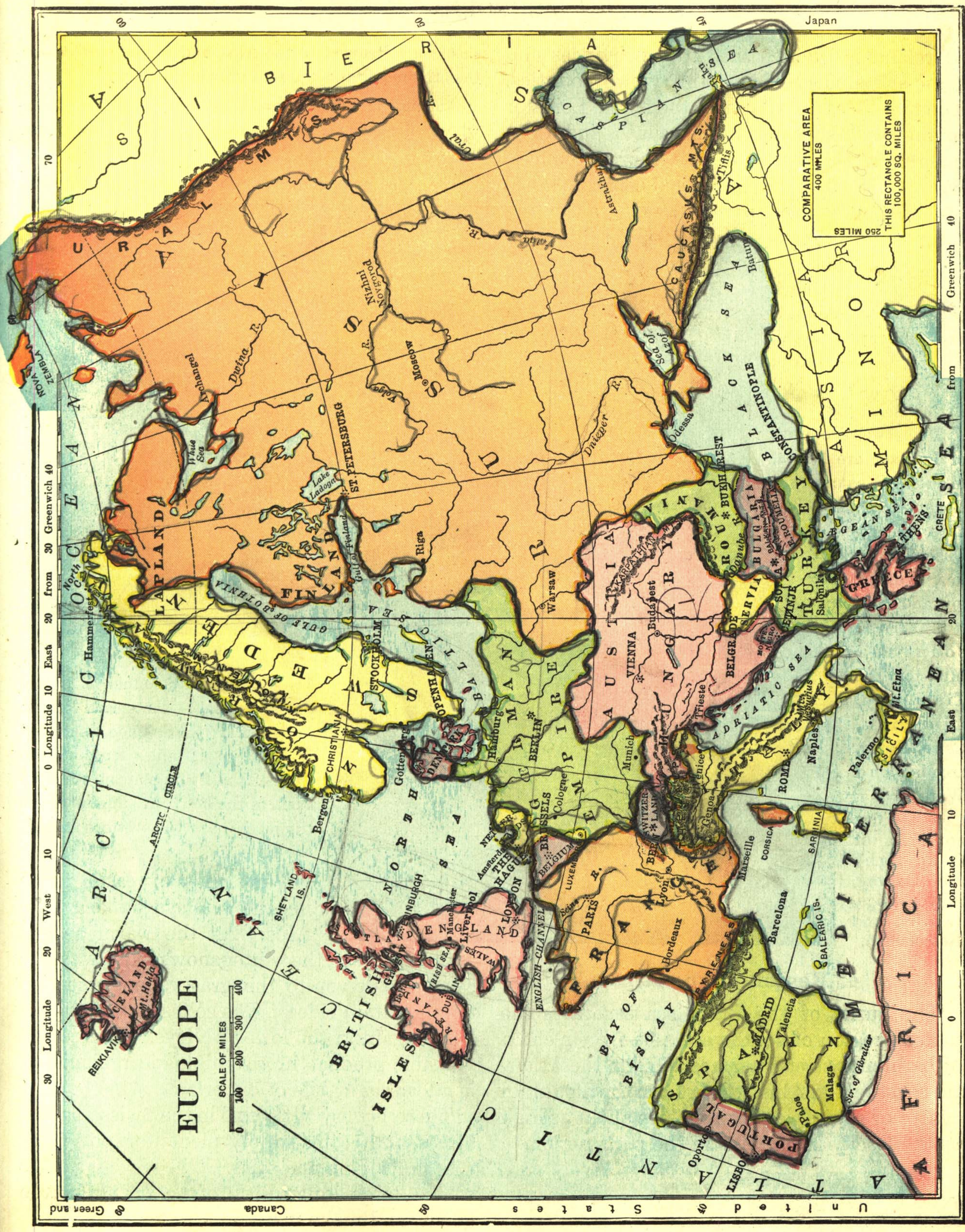
Cork exports cattle and provisions. Atlantic steamers call at Queenstown on an island in Cork harbor.

Waterford has a large cattle trade with Bristol.

Limerick exports agricultural products and makes gloves and lace.

Galway has important fisheries.

Londonderry exports farm produce. North American steamers from Glasgow call here.



EUROPE

SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400

COMPARATIVE AREA
400 MILES
250 MILES
THIS RECTANGLE CONTAINS
100,000 SQ. MILES

Ireland is divided into four provinces and these are subdivided into thirty-two counties. The provinces are Ulster in the north, Leinster in the east, Munster in the south, and Connaught in the west. These four provinces, with Meath, at one time formed separate kingdoms, but now they form only geographical boundaries.

1. The nine counties of Ulster are Antrim, Londonderry, Donegal, Tyrone, Armagh, Down, Monaghan, Cavan, and Fermanagh.

2. The twelve counties of Leinster are Louth, Meath, Westmeath, Longford, Dublin, Kildare, King's County, Queen's County, Wicklow, Wexford, Carlow, and Kilkenny.

3. The six counties of Munster are Tipperary, Limerick, Clare, Kerry, Cork, and Waterford.

4. The five counties of Connaught are Galway, Mayo, Sligo, Leitrim, and Roscommon.

4. Region of the Alps.

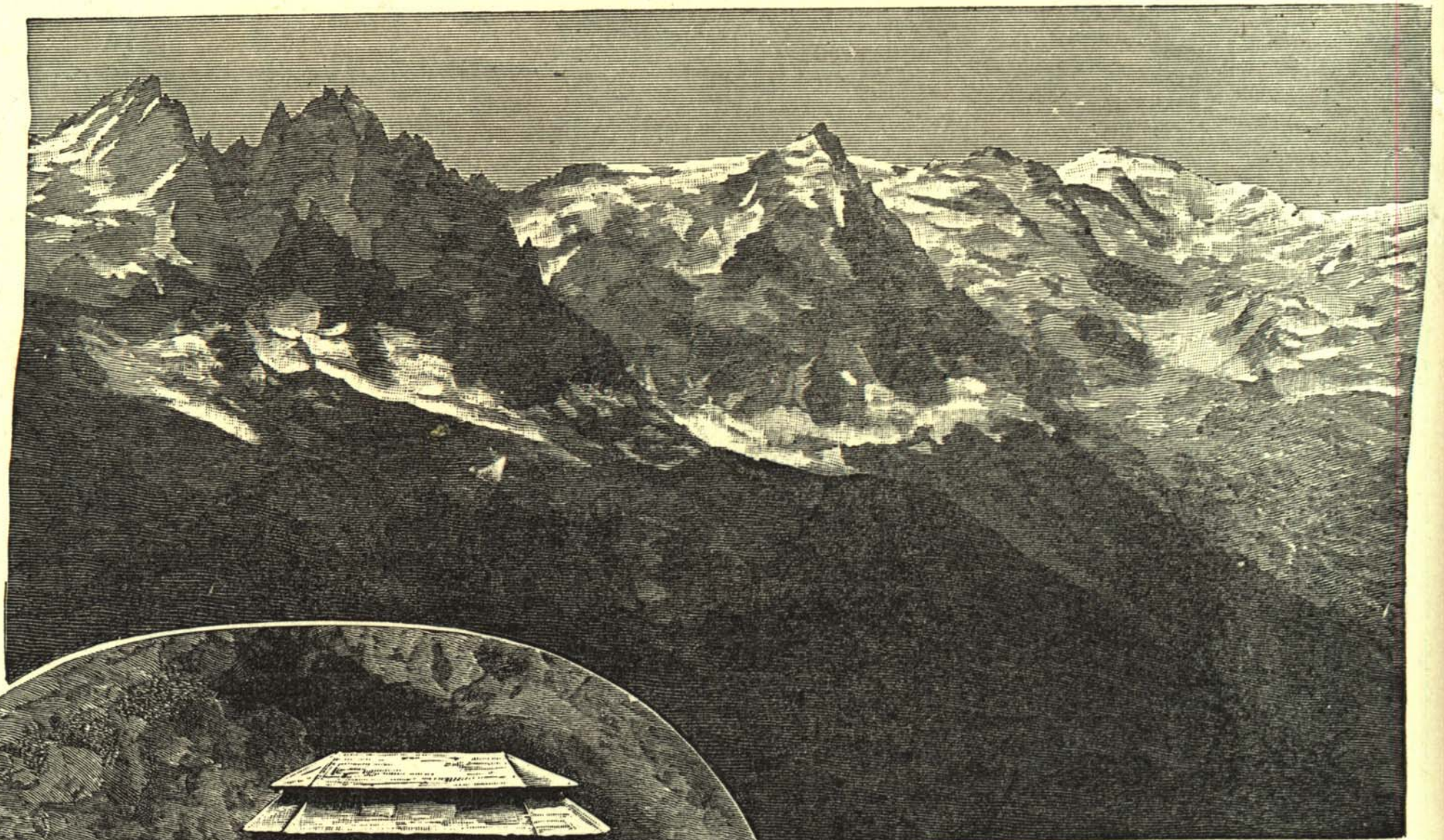
The outlet of the Black sea separates the plateau region of southwest Asia from a chain of highlands stretching westward to the Atlantic coast. The Alps, which form the mountain centre of south-west Europe, are about as high as the Rocky mountains in the park region.

The Alps have many sharp peaks, for they are too young to be greatly worn down. They are not nearly so old as the Appalachian highland. Slight earthquake

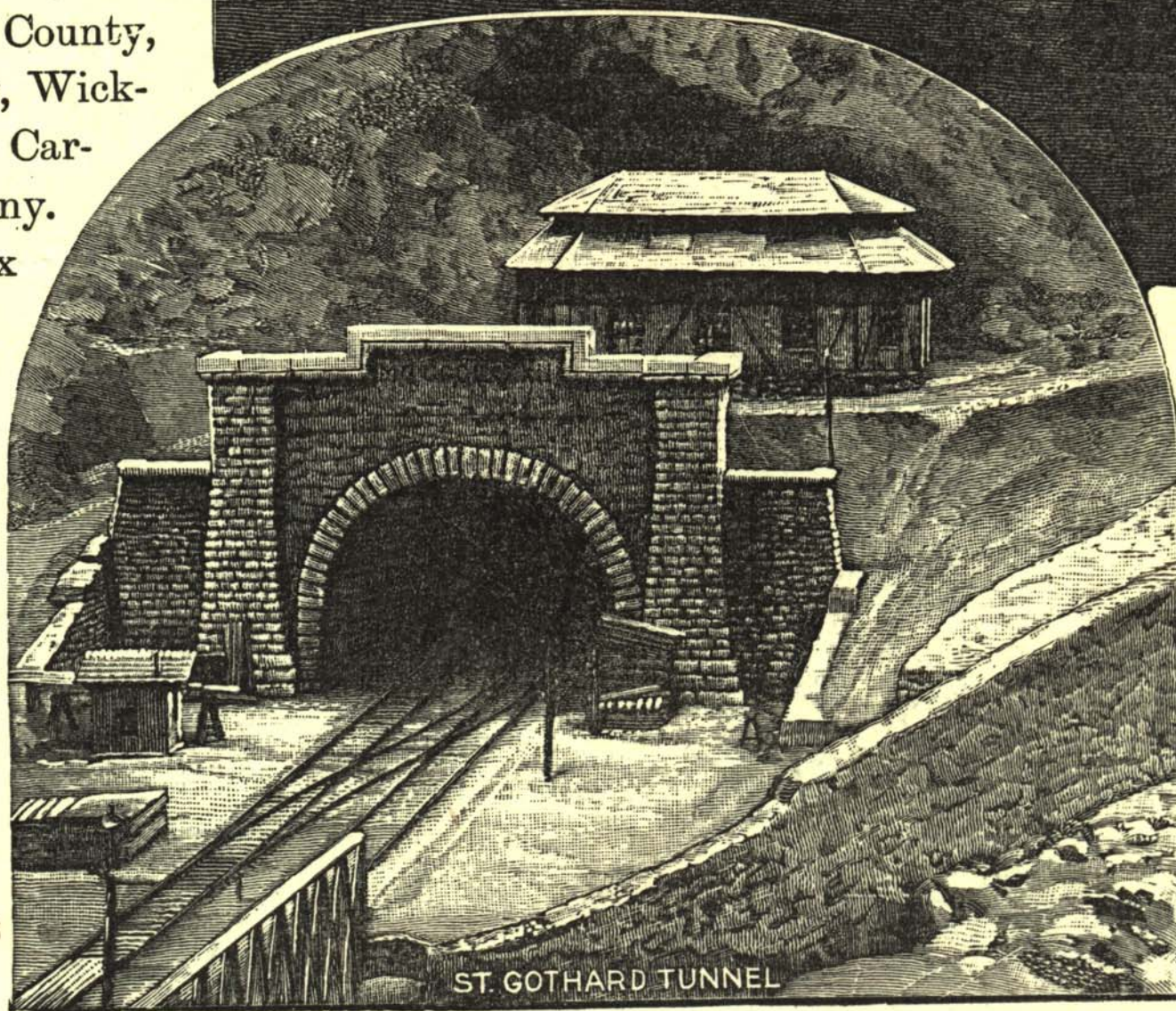
shocks are frequent in the Alps, and are taken to mean that the mountains are still growing higher.

Among the Alps are great snow-capped peaks, down whose sides long glaciers slowly wind, melting in the valleys.

The Alps are pierced by several railroad tunnels.



Mont Blanc.



ST. GOTHARD TUNNEL

The St. Gothard tunnel is nearly ten miles long,—the second longest in the world; the Simplon, completed in 1905, is 12 miles long. These connect the Swiss plateau with the basin of the Po-river. Mount Cenis tunnel is near the western end of the Po basin.

Thousands of cattle graze in the valleys among the Alps. As the warm season

approaches and the winter snow melts away, the cattle are driven to the grassy slopes high up the mountain sides. The cold season finds the herds again in the lower valleys. Cheese is a valuable product in the highland region, and is a leading article of export.

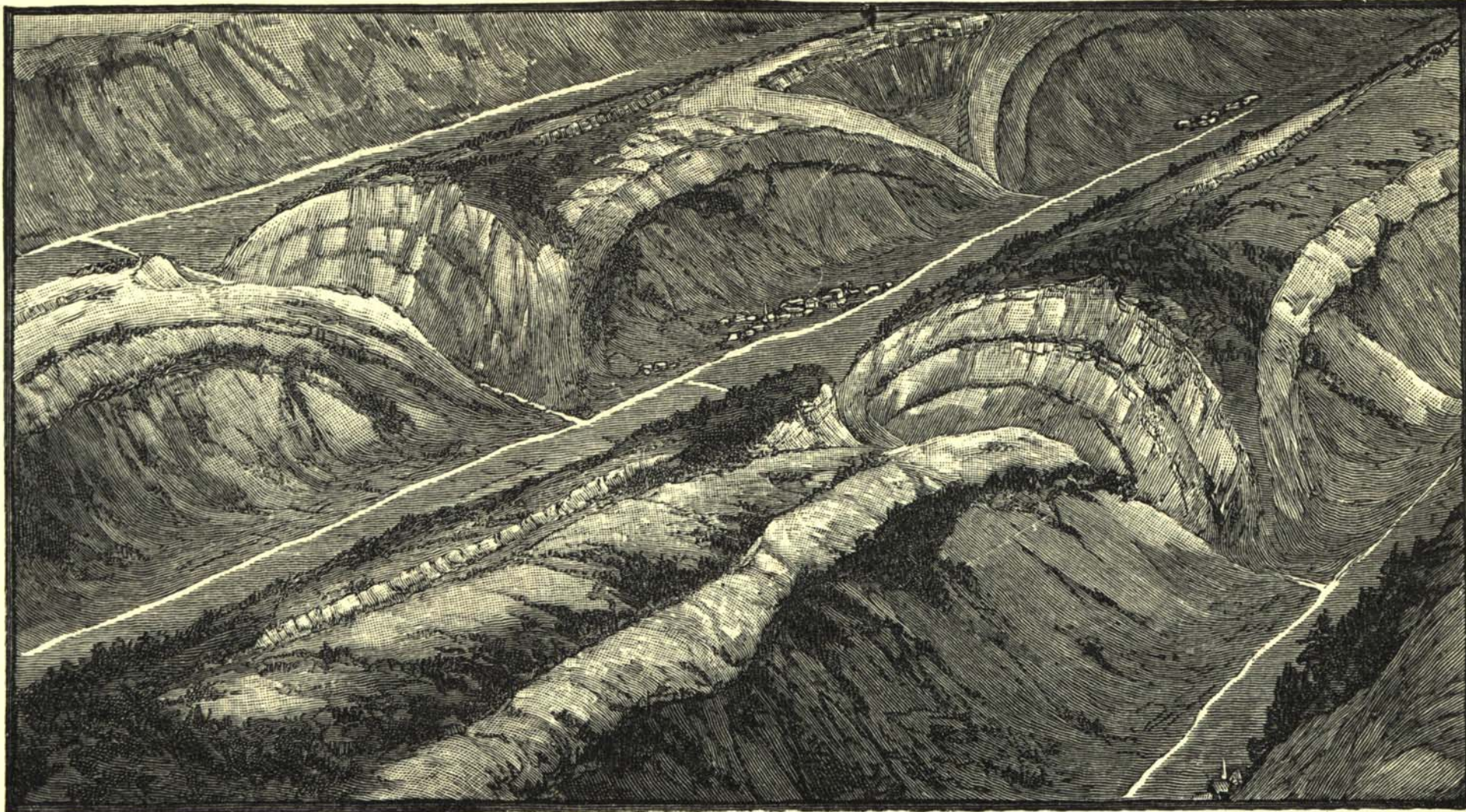
There is very little coal in the Swiss plateau, but swift streams supply plenty of power for the mills and factories. The Swiss people weave large quantities of silk and cotton goods, and make many fine watches.

The western part of the Alps bends southward between the valleys of the Po and the Rhone. This part of the mountain chain extends to the shore of the Mediterranean sea.

A long branch called the Apennines runs the entire length of the peninsula of Italy.

On the western side of the Rhone valley rises the broad range known as the *Cevennes*. These mountains are much older and lower than the Alps, and contain the sources of many streams flowing westward to the Atlantic.

The Jura mountains extend from the



Ridges and Troughs of the Jura Regions.

Rhone river south-west into the valley of the Rhone. They consist chiefly of low arches or folds, so young that they have not yet been greatly worn. *See illustration above.*

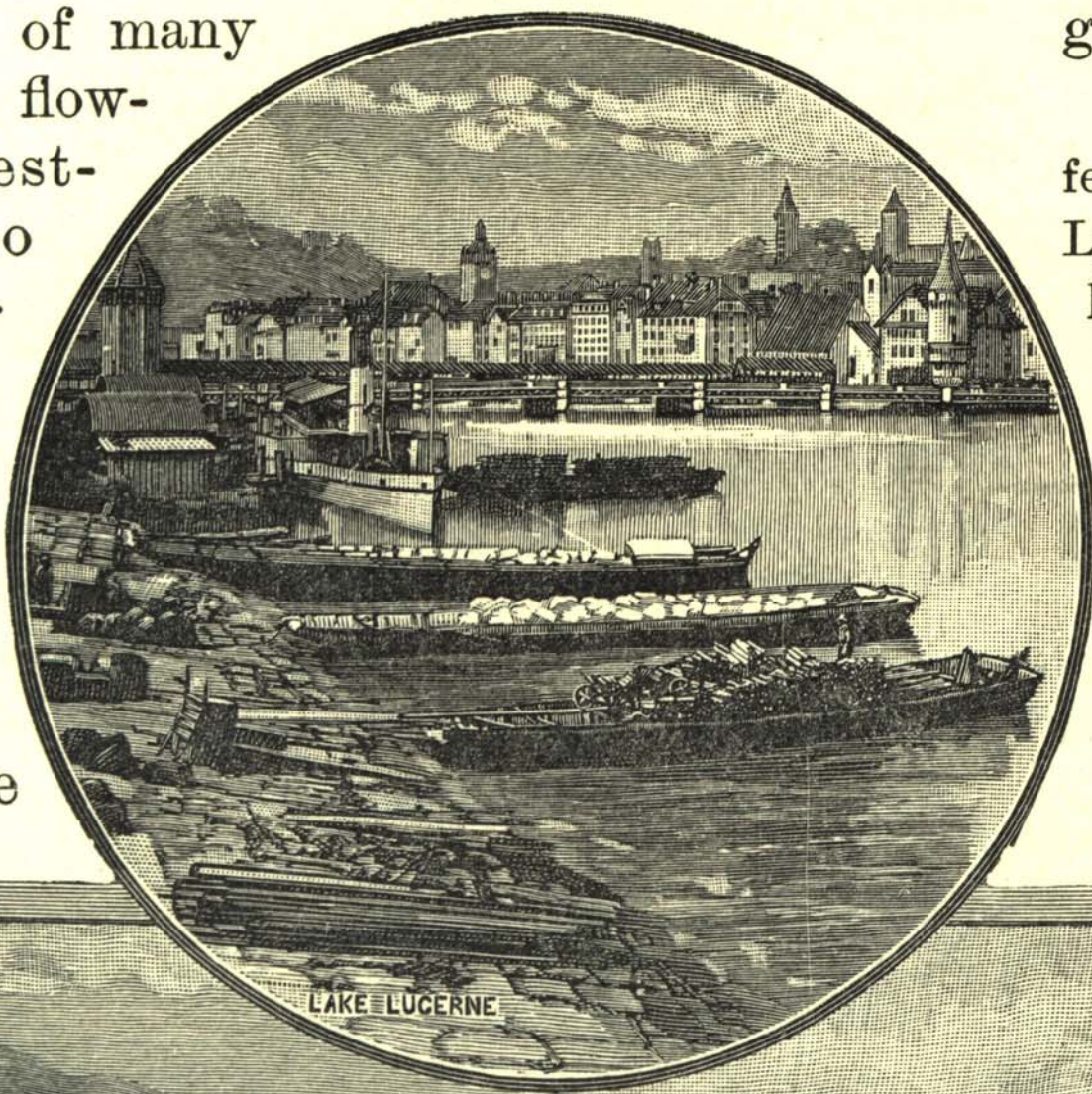
The mulberry tree, upon whose leaves the silkworm feeds, is common in southern Europe. The city of Lyons, at the junction of the Rhone and Saone rivers, has the largest silk manufactories in the world.

The Rhone, like all other rivers flowing into seas having only faint currents, is making a delta. This river is so rapid that only steamers can stem its current above the delta plain, and thus reach Lyons.

On the north of the Swiss plateau, many old and low mountains extend far into Germany. The surface of these mountains has been worn down to layers of rock that were once deep in the earth. They are rich in iron ore and other minerals.

There are so many mines in these old mountains that the Germans speak of all mining as *mountain work*.

On the east the Alpine highland reaches out to the Carpathian range. On the south-east the highland sends out branch ranges into the Balkan peninsula. These are mostly low, like the mountains shown in the picture of *Marathon*, on this page.



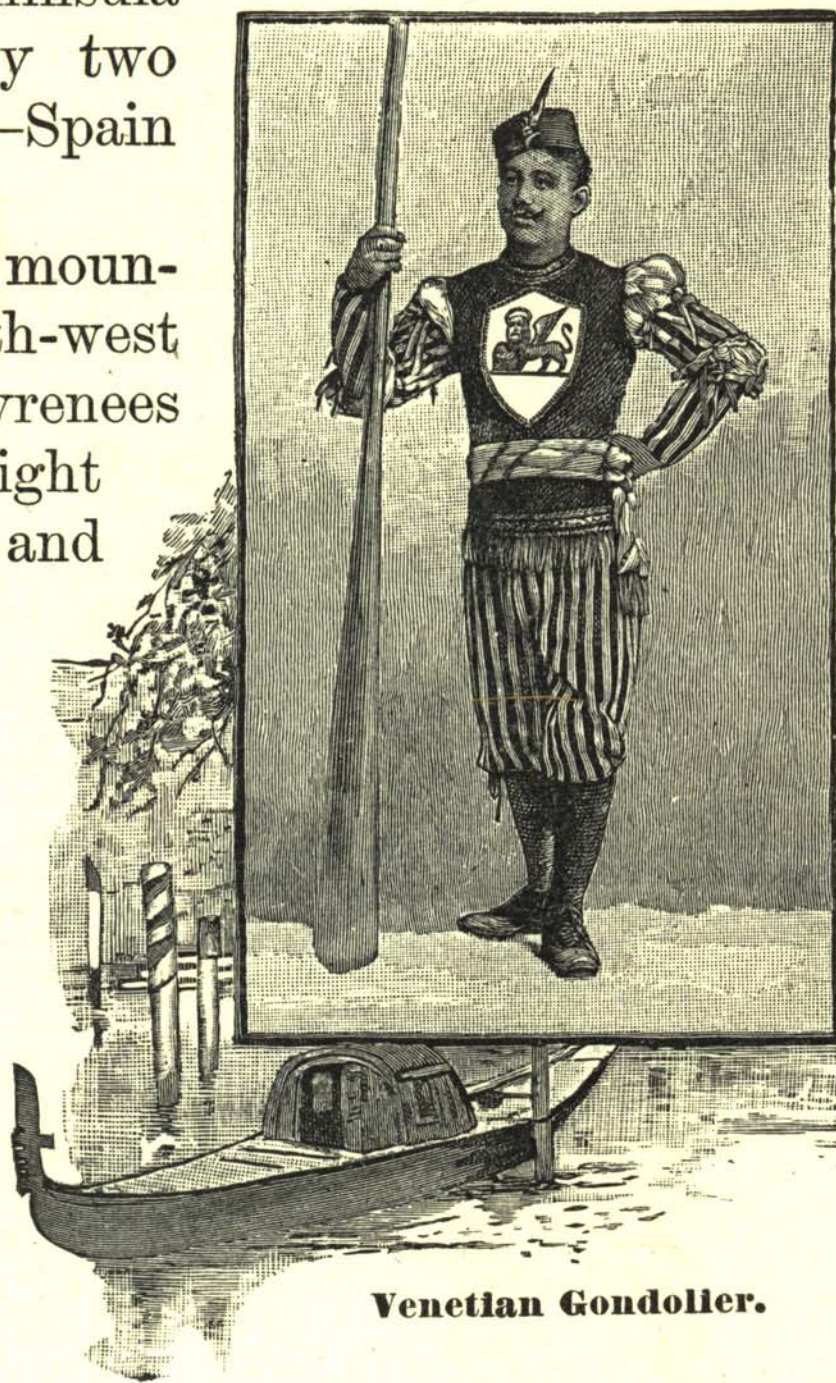
5. The Spanish Peninsula.

The great peninsula in south-west Europe is known as the *Spanish peninsula*. The lofty Pyrenees mountains extend across its isthmus. This great peninsula is shared by two countries,—Spain and Portugal.

Among the mountains of south-west Europe, the Pyrenees are next in height to the Alps, and form a lofty barrier between France and Spain.

The Spanish peninsula consists mainly of broad tablelands, with a border of narrow coastal plains on the east and the west. Mountain ranges almost inclose the upland region, and other ranges extend across it. The general level is about half a mile above the sea. This broad upland surface is swept by chilly winter winds, and is parched by summer sunshine. Only the spring and autumn months are mild. The rainfall is so light that the plateaus are almost treeless.

The river valleys in this peninsula are fertile. Those of the Ebro and Guadalquivir rivers form the broadest lowlands, but even these are not very broad. The narrow coastal plains also are fertile. Those on the west and south-west coasts receive heavy rainfall; those on the east are well irrigated from immense reservoirs in the uplands. Wheat and barley are the chief grain crops, but the peninsula is



Venetian Gondoller.

noted for its vineyards and orange groves. Wine is the chief article of export.

On the southern coast of Spain, near the strait of Gibraltar, a small but famous peninsula extends into the sea. The body of the peninsula consists of a mass of rock, about two miles and a half long, known as the *Rock of Gibraltar*. This Rock was once an island, but sandy waste filled in the strait at its northern end, and now a flat neck unites the Rock with the mainland. Gibraltar is the strongest fortress in the world. It belongs to the British nation.

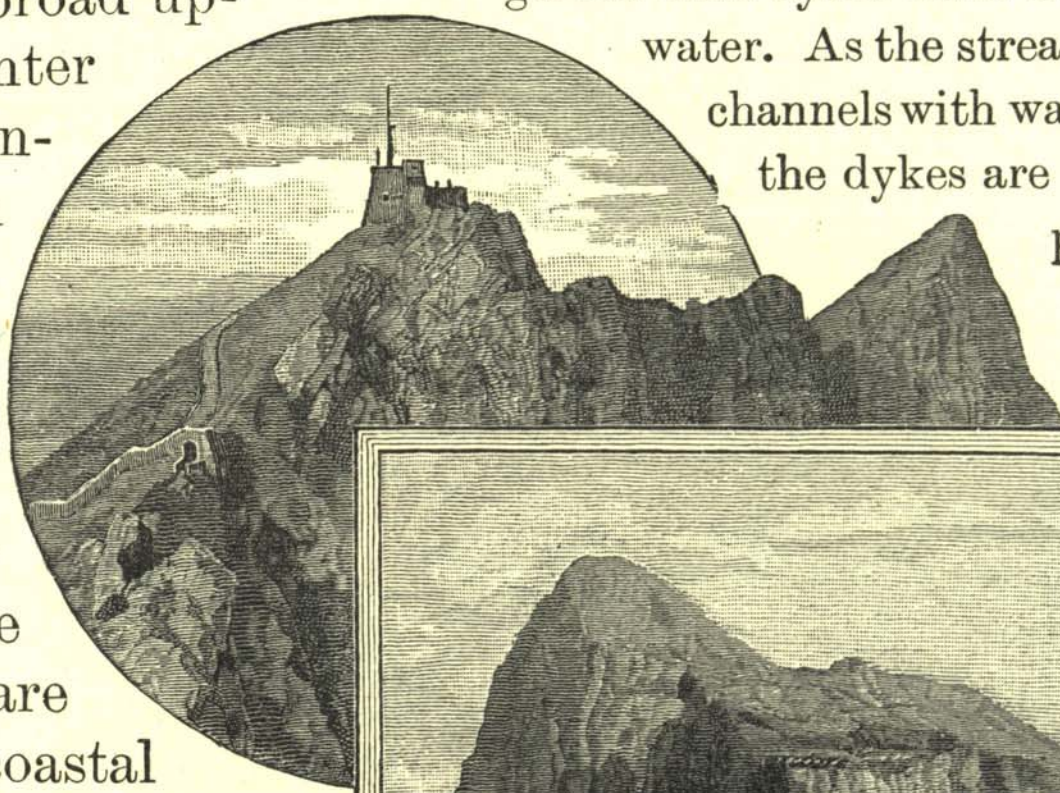
6. The Po and the Apennines.

The Po river flows through a plain that is not many feet above the sea level. This plain is made of waste worn from the Alps and the Apennines. The lowland consists of flood and delta plains. No other region in Europe rivals the valley of the Po in the grandeur of its magnificent landscapes.

The melting snow and ice in the high Alps feed many of the Po branches. One of these flows from a glacier on Mount Blanc.

Along the northern border of the plain, near the foot of the Alps, are some of the Alpine lakes that are famous for their beauty. Among these are Como, Garda and Maggiore.

The Adige river drains part of this lowland but does not join the Po. The floods of these rivers are so dangerous that dykes have been built to confine the water. As the streams continue to fill their channels with waste from the mountains, the dykes are built higher. In some places the surfaces of the rivers are now higher than the plain.



Rock of Gibraltar.



Pass of St. Bernard.

The marshy deltas of the Po and the Adige are rapidly growing into the Adriatic sea. Some places that were once seaports are now several miles inland. Along the coast, sandy islands almost inclose lagoons.

The city of Venice is built on islands in one of these lagoons. In this city, canals partly take the place of streets. Boats called *gondolas* are seen everywhere on the canals.

Irrigating canals reach almost every part of the valley of the Po and the Adige, making it one large garden. Grains of all kinds thrive there, and the foothills are covered with vineyards. The meadows are mowed five or six times a year,—yielding fine grass for dairy cattle. Mulberry trees abound.

The St. Bernard pass is one of the most famous passes in the routes over the Alps from the Po valley. Since the building of the railroads these lofty passes have been little used by travellers.

From the fertile plains in the north, the Apennines extend towards the south-east through the entire length of the peninsula of Italy. This celebrated range is older than the

Alps, and has no such lofty peaks as those rising on the north-west of the Po basin, but the upper parts of the Apennines are buried in snow all winter.

The foothills and coastal plains south-west of the range are sheltered, and produce many kinds of fruit. Among these are oranges, lemons,

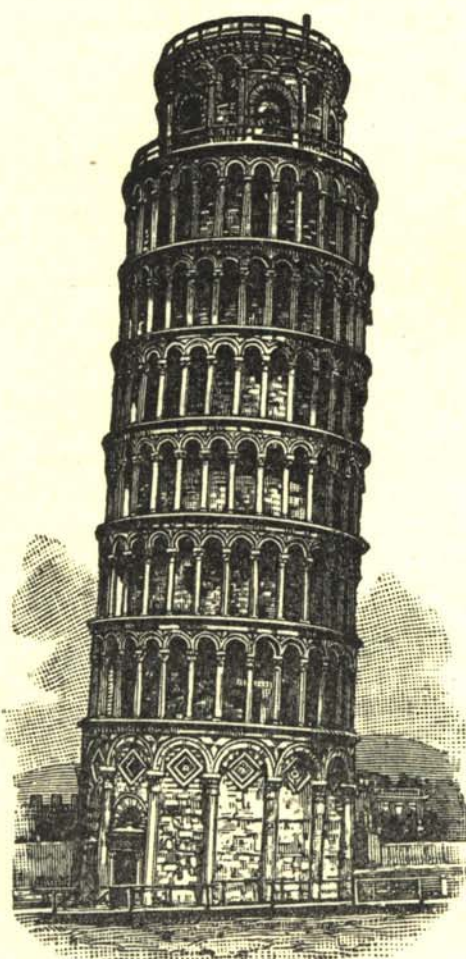
olives, and grapes. This region is also famous for mulberry trees. Silk is the most valuable export from Italy.

The leaning tower, shown below, is in *Pisa*, a city on the Arno river, Italy. Two thousand years ago Pisa was only two miles from the mouth of the Arno; now it is six miles, for the river has meanwhile built its delta out into the sea.

The famous leaning tower is 183 feet high, and it leans 13 feet from an upright position. The walls of the tower are very thick, and are made of marble.

7. The Balkan Peninsula.

Many ranges branch from the eastern end of the Alps. Some of these turn towards the south-east and divide into smaller ranges, forming the highland in the Balkan peninsula. This broad peninsula stretches from the Black sea to the Adriatic.



Leaning Tower of Pisa.

The Balkan range is the highest in the peninsula. These mountains extend east and west along the southern border of the Danube basin.

Forests of pine and oak grow on the Balkan slopes, and in other parts of the rugged highland of this peninsula. Thousands of swine feed on the acorns.

The roses which thrive near the Balkan range yield a perfume known as *attar of roses*.

The lowlands in the Balkan peninsula are very fertile. The hilly portions afford good pastures.

The middle belt of the Balkan peninsula is occupied by Turkey. Owing to the poor way in which the country is governed, the people are shiftless, and do not make good use of their land. Wheat, raisins, and tobacco are valuable products. Constantinople, on the strait called the *Bosphorus*, is the chief port of Turkey.

The Pindus mountains are low, but they run like a backbone through the southern part of the peninsula. There, in the small country of Greece, many deep and broad valleys lie between the branches of this range.

On the plains of Marathon, shown in the picture on



Italian Piper.

page 161, the ancient Greeks won a great victory over a large army of Persians. This plain lies between the mountains and the sea. Most of the mountains in Greece are small and

greatly worn, like those which overlook the plain of Marathon.

The southern part of Greece is a peninsula having a very narrow neck known as the *isthmus of Corinth*. A ship canal has been cut through this isthmus. The small raisins of Greece are called *currants*,—a corruption of the word *Corinth*. Currants are the most valuable product which Greece sends to other countries.

Many years ago the Greeks were famous for their learning and their works of art. They built grand temples in which they placed beautiful statues made of marble, or of ivory and gold. Many of the marble statues, and the ruins of some of their temples, still exist. The most famous temples were built on a fortified hill, known as the *Acropolis*, in Athens.

On the highest part of this hill stood the *Parthenon*,—the grandest of all the temples. Within and without the Parthenon were statues and friezes which rank foremost among ancient sculptures. Many of these are now preserved in the British Museum, in London.

8. The Plain of Hungary.

The Carpathian mountains partly divide *High Europe* from *Low Europe*.

The lowland part of the Danube basin which lies south-west of the Carpathian mountains, is known as the *plain of Hungary*. This is a young plain which was formerly the bed of a lake. The leading products are sugar beets and grain. The plain of Hungary supports nearly three and a half times as many people as there are in Canada. The Danube and its branches

form a waterway to almost every part of the plain. The main river affords an outlet eastward.

Far the greater part of the Danube basin is in the country of Austria-Hungary, which includes the plain of Hungary. The leading articles of export from this country are beet sugar, grain, and lumber. Vienna, the largest city, is built near the place where the Danube river leaves the mountain district on the west and enters the plain of Hungary.

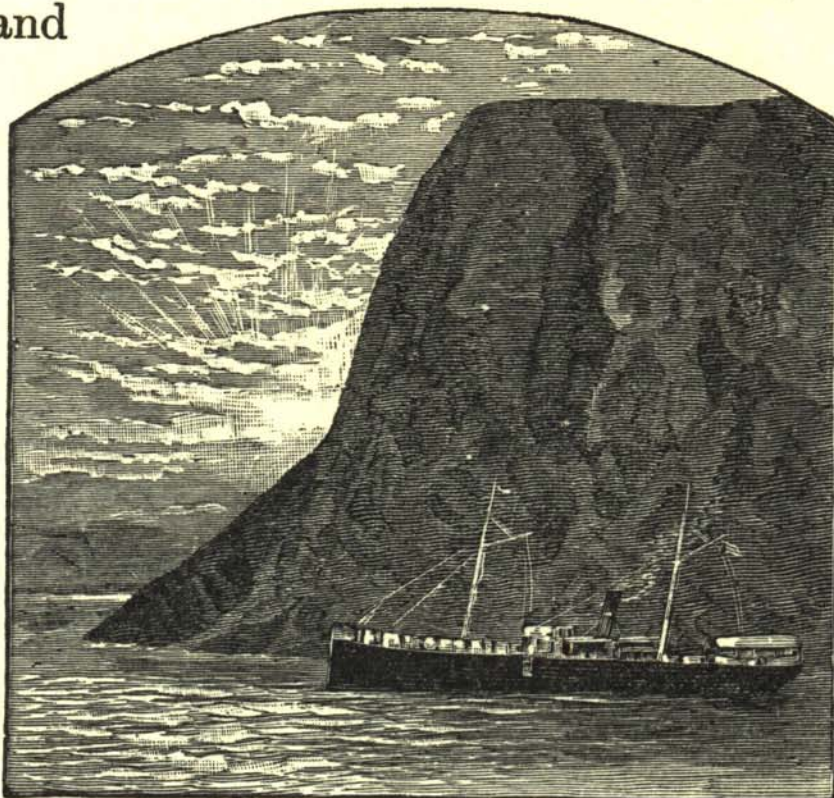
9. The Scandinavian Peninsula.

The Scandinavian peninsula is the largest peninsula in Europe,—being more than a thousand miles long. The highland in this great tongue of land is very old, like the Laurentian highland.

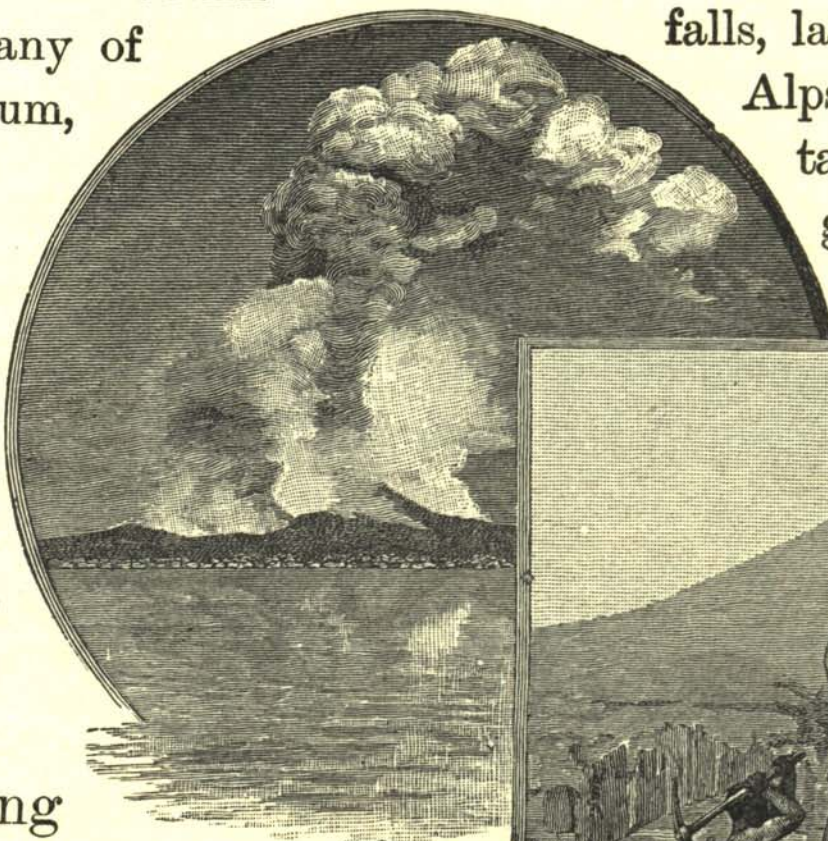
The Scandinavian highland was once worn low, then raised again, cut by deep valleys, and at length partly drowned.

The western slopes of this highland are steep and rugged. They descend to many long and deep fiords. Along the coast are countless islands formed by the partial drowning of the highland.

The western slopes of the Scandinavian highland resemble the sides of the Alps in having glaciers, torrents, falls, lakes and forests; but, unlike the Alps, the old Scandinavian mountains are often flat-topped, and together they form a rugged plateau.



North Cape, Norway.



Vesuvius.



Excavations in Pompeii.

Along the west coast of the great peninsula extends a series of banks over which the water is shallow. Beyond them the water is very deep. These banks, like shoals along many other shores, abound in fish.

The Lofoden islands form a group off the north-west coast of the peninsula. The tide rushes with great force between two of these islands. Boats are sometimes lost in this strong tide, known as the *maelstrom*.

The eastern slope of the Scandinavian highland is more gentle than the western, and descends to a rolling lowland. Many rivers cross this lowland, and flow into the gulf and sea on the east and south.

Although the northern part of this peninsula lies within the Arctic circle, no portion is in the cold belt. The mildness of the climate along the coast of this northern land is largely due to the drift from the Gulf stream, part of the North Atlantic current.

In winter the sea and gulf on the east of the peninsula, as well as the wide straits leading into them, are frozen over, for here the mild winds from the ocean do not enter. At the same time, the ocean around North cape is free from ice. Thus the heat given to ocean currents in the torrid zone proves a great blessing to people in this far-away land.

The North cape is so far away from the equator that in the warm season the sun for more than two months does not sink below the horizon. During the cold season there is a night of equal length. The other days and nights vary in length from a few minutes to twenty-four hours.

Two countries comprise the greater part of the Scandinavian peninsula. They are Norway on the west, and Sweden on the east. Nearly

all the people in these countries belong to the white race, but the Lapps, in the north, are a branch of the yellow race.

Some of the Lapps keep herds of reindeer.

Others catch fish in the lakes, streams and sea. In winter their land is buried in snow and ice.

Large crops of grain are raised in the southern lowland of the Scandinavian peninsula, and there most of the people live. This peninsula is in the great forest

belt which extends from the Atlantic ocean to the Pacific. Norway pine and fir are leading exports. There are also rich mines of iron ore in the old rocks of the peninsula.

The people in these countries carry on trade chiefly through the two large cities of Stockholm and Christiania.

The peninsula and islands of Denmark form a part of Scandinavia. The surface, climate and products of Denmark are similar to those of the lowlands in southern Sweden and Norway. The people of these three countries, except the Lapps, are called *Norsemen*, meaning *northmen*.

Iceland and the southern part of Greenland belong to Denmark. Iceland is a volcanic island about 300 miles long. Its middle region is a table-land less than half a mile above sea level and covered with lava and sand.

Parts of the island are perpetually buried in ice.

Most of the people in Iceland live near the coasts. The chief exports are codfish, wool and eider-down.

No grains and only a few vegetables are raised on the island. The best-known of the Iceland volcanoes is Mt. Hecla. Iceland is remarkable for its geysers, one of which throws a column of water about one hundred feet into the air.



Norwegian Cart.



Windmills in Holland.

10. Low Europe—Western Part.

West of the Alpine highland lies the lowland of France.

In what general direction do the rivers of this lowland flow? Name two of them.

Between the Pyrenees and the wide mouth of the Gironde river extends a young coastal plain, low and flat. This region is known as the *Landes*, and consists of wide marshes and sandy tracts.

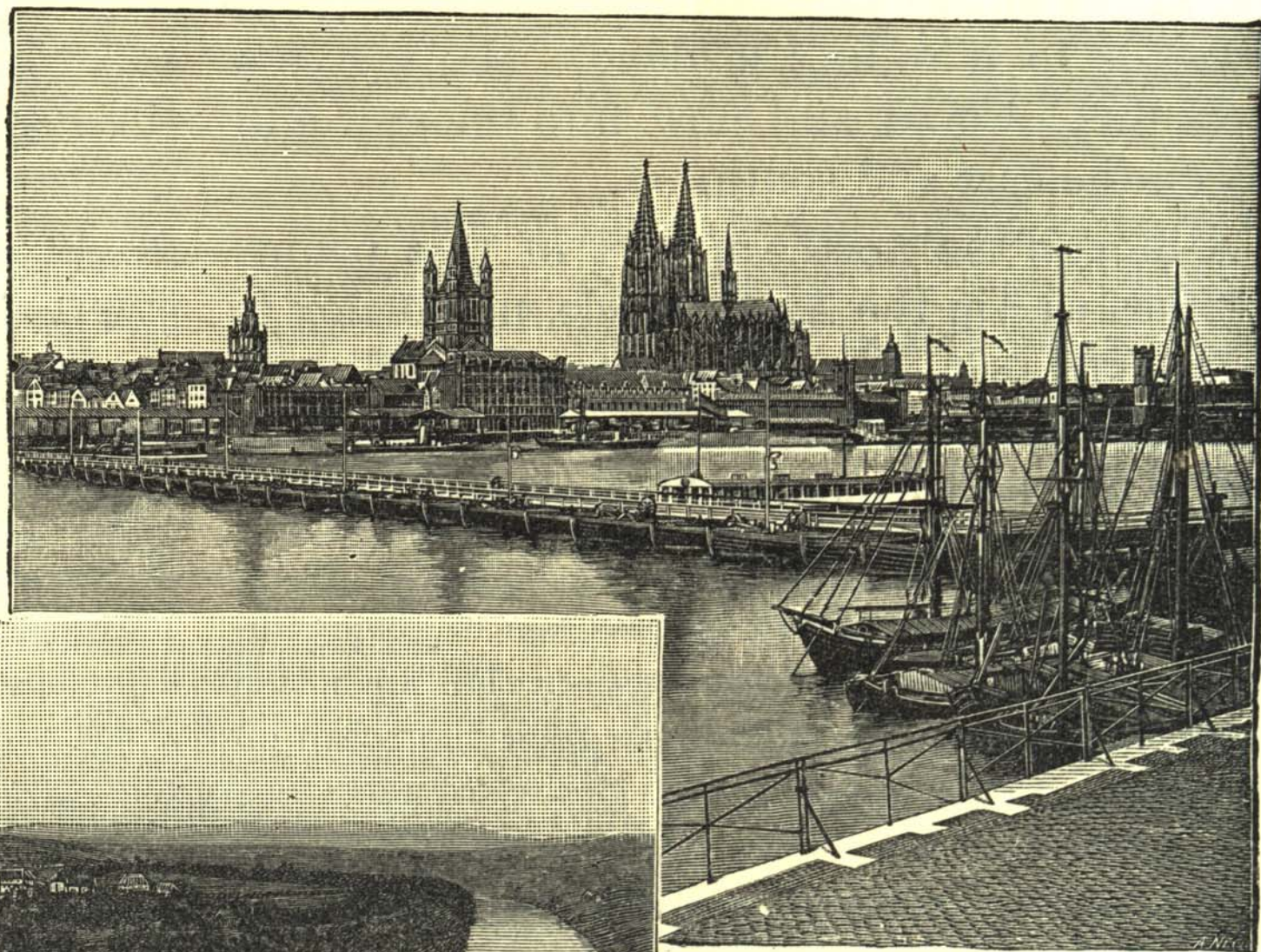
Northward from the Gironde river the central part of France is rolling and hilly.

Very low plains lie along the southern shore of the North sea. Part of this lowland is a young coastal plain, and part is the delta plain of the Rhine river. In some places the land surface is sunk below the level of the sea, and dykes have been built to keep out the salt water. Portions of the plain have been reclaimed from the sea. Lagoons were surrounded by dykes to prevent more water flowing into them, and were then pumped dry.

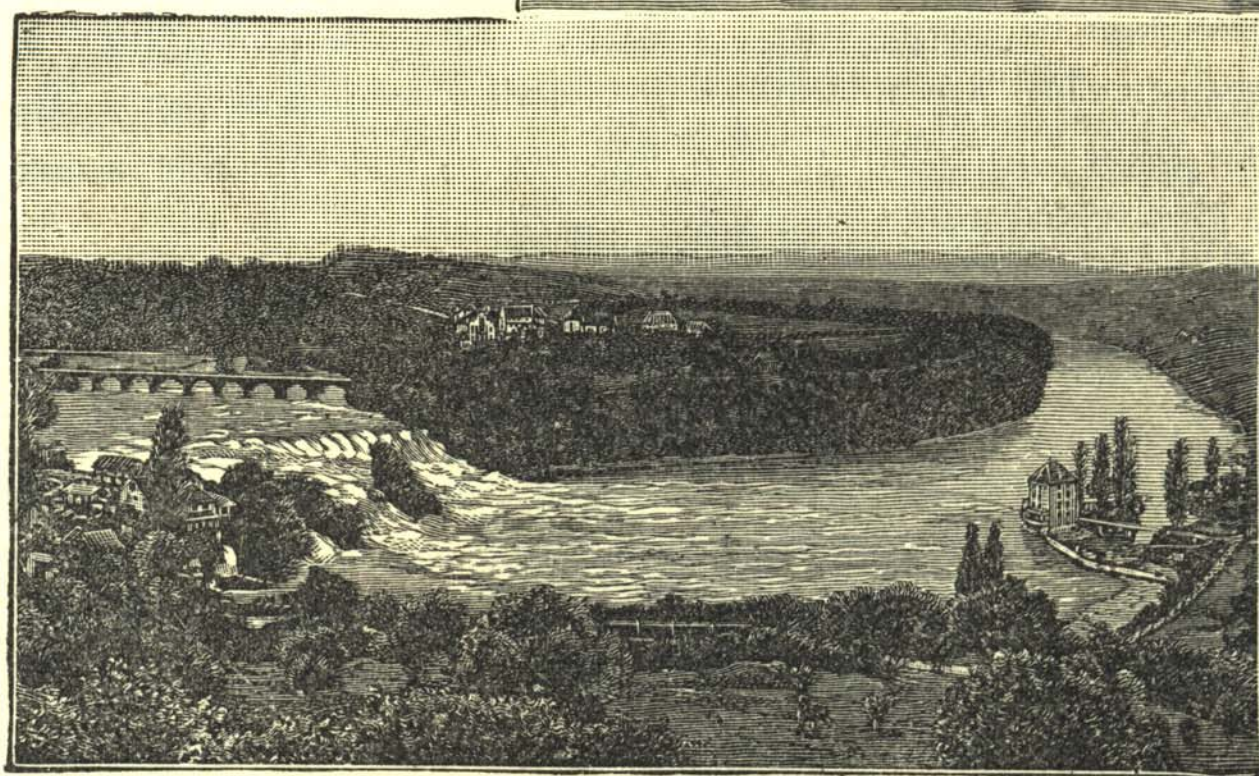
Canals form a network over these lowlands and afford cheap water ways to all parts of the low country. Thousands of windmills are kept busy pumping water from the fields into the canals. A man's wealth may here be counted in windmills and cattle. One portion of these flat plains is known as *Holland*, or the *Netherlands*,—meaning *lowlands*. On the south-west is Belgium.

The Rhine river, above its delta plain, has cut a deep valley through a broad rolling upland. Many of the Rhine branches also have worn valleys in this upland.

The battle-scarred house shown on next page is near the village of Waterloo, about nine miles south-westward from Brussels, in Belgium. The house was torn by shot and shell in the great battle of Waterloo, in which the power of Napoleon was broken. This famous French



Cologne, on the lower Rhine.



The Falls of the Rhine, on the border of Switzerland.

general was banished to the lonely island of St. Helena, where he died.

North-eastward from the Netherlands, low swampy or sandy coastal plains border on the North and Baltic sea-coasts. The lowlands are crossed by the Elbe, the Oder and the Vistula rivers, flowing from the border of the highland region.

The regions on the west and north of the

Baltic. It is a kind of northern Venice, canals running through its streets, and many of the houses being built on piles.

Breslau, on the Oder, is the second city of Prussia in population. It is celebrated for its *wool fair* and the manufacture of linen and woollen cloth. It is situated in the middle of the trade between the North Sea, the Baltic Sea and the basin of the Danube.

Cologne, an ancient city on the Rhine, manufactures cotton, woollen, and silk fabrics, and is noted for its distilled waters called Eau de Cologne.

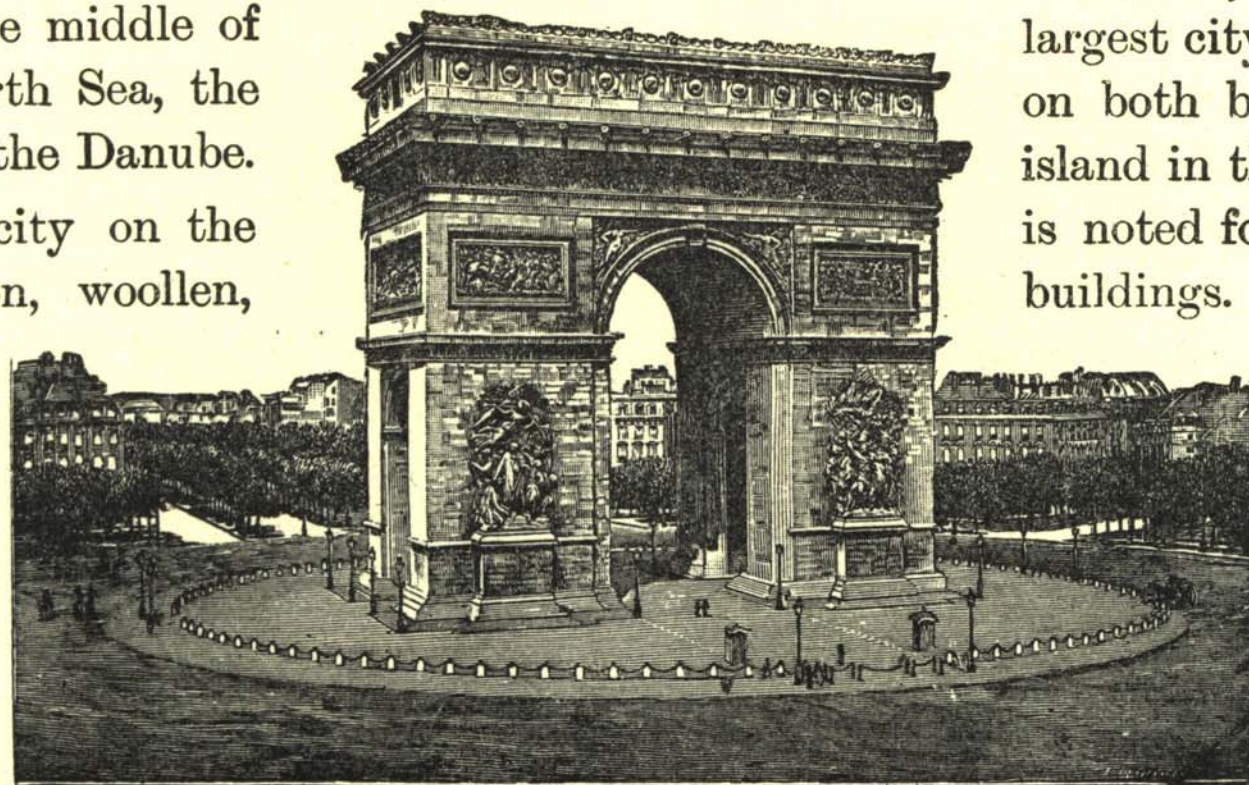
FRANCE.—France is one of the wealthiest countries of the world. It lies about half way between the Equator and the North Pole. It is essentially an agricultural and manufacturing country, one-half the people being directly engaged in agriculture. About seven-eighths of its soil is under careful cultivation. There are extensive vineyards in the south. Mulberry trees and the rearing of silkworms in the south, as well as poultry farming, deserve special notice. Its most important manufactures are those of silk, wine, wool, cotton, linen, iron, and leather.

France has a very extensive commerce, the fourth in the world. Situated as it is between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, the two great commercial channels of the world, it holds a most commanding position for maritime trade.

France possesses a magnificent system of internal communication. It has more than 23,000 miles of railroad. The 150 navigable streams are connected by the

best system of canals in Europe. The Languedoc Canal connects the Bay of Biscay with the Mediterranean, and effects a gain of 1,400 miles on the ocean route round the Iberian peninsula.

Paris, the capital, is the second largest city in the world. It is situated on both banks of the Seine and on an island in the middle of the stream. It is noted for its art galleries and its fine buildings. People from all countries go to Paris to "shop." It is the pleasure city of Europe and America. It is the centre of the railroad systems of France and the focus of the foreign and internal trade of the country.



The Arch of Triumph, Paris.

Havre, at the mouth of the Seine, is the port of Paris. Steamers from Havre reach nearly all great sea-ports. It imports all kinds of raw materials. Among the French exports to Canada are silks, woollens, and millinery goods.

Lyons, the second city in France both in population and manufactures, at the confluence of the Rhone and Saone, is the centre of the silk manufacture. It is not far from the coal region of the Cevennes, nor from the silkworm districts of Southern France.

Marseilles is not only the largest port of France, but also the greatest commercial port on the Mediterranean. It is the chief port on the Rhone valley.

Bordeaux, on the Garonne, is the third largest port of France. The basin of the Garonne produces great quantities of grapes, and Bordeaux is the chief wine-shipping port.

Lille is in the flax-growing region of Northern France, and is near coal mines. It has large mills for the manufacture of linen cloth and thread.

Toulouse, in the vineyard district on the Garonne, lies between the Atlantic and Mediterranean, with which it is connected by canals.



A Street in Amsterdam.

BELGIUM. Belgium has valuable coal mines, and is in the flax district. Laces and linen are important manufactures in this country.

Sugar beets are a leading crop in Belgium. Here are also beds of excellent sand for glass-making.

Antwerp, the chief port, is the centre of the rail-

colonies, among which are Java, Sumatra and Dutch Guiana. These colonies send tobacco, tea, coffee, sugar and spices to Holland.

Amsterdam and **Rotterdam** are important ports. Many skillful diamond-cutters live in these cities.

DENMARK. This country resembles Holland in its products.



Copenhagen is the capital and principal city.

12. Low Europe—Eastern Part.

The great lowland of eastern Europe is known as the *plain of Russia*. It forms with the Siberian plain the northern lowland of Eurasia. The plain of Russia stretches from the Black sea and the Caucasus mountains to the Arctic coast, and includes one half of the continent.

One of the richest petroleum fields known in the world is in the Caucasus mountains.

The northern portion of the plain of Russia consists of frozen treeless tundras like those along the Arctic coasts of America and Asia. South of the tundras lies

road and canal systems which reach nearly all parts of Belgium. It is the third great port of the world.

Brussels is noted for carpets and laces. **Liege** is well known for its fire-arms.

THE NETHERLANDS OR HOLLAND. The people of this country are largely engaged in dairying and in raising cereals. Holland has many

the forest belt, which crosses the northern plain of all Eurasia.

The portion of the Russian plain known as *Finland* is very flat and contains thousands of lakes. The southern half of Finland is in the forest belt, but the northern part merges into the desolate tundras.

On the south of the forest belt are fertile treeless plains extending to the Black sea and to the salty steppes around the Caspian sea. The plains, except in the drier salty portion, yield immense crops of grain, and afford pasturage to large numbers of cattle, horses and sheep.

Through the forest belt and across the plains flows the Volga, the largest river in Europe. The Volga basin comprises about one fifth of the plain of Russia. The main river in this basin rises in marshes near the Valdai hills. These hills are only a few hundred feet above sea level, but many large rivers rise in or near them.

The Volga river, with its net-work of canals, forms the main water way through the Russian plains. It reaches almost all parts of the forest and grain

districts, the mining region in the Ural mountains, the fur belt in the Dwina basin, the oil wells near the Caucasus range, and the salt beds around the Caspian sea. These water routes lead to all the border seas of the plain of Russia.

13. Mediterranean Countries.

SPAIN. The soil of Spain is rich in the valleys; olives, figs, lemons, and grapes grow abundantly. There are fine pasture lands on the higher lands, and sheep raising is a large industry. The mines produce iron, lead, and quicksilver. The quicksilver mines are the richest in the world. A great deal of cork is exported from Spain. The climate is very hot in the valleys.

Madrid, the capital and largest city of Spain, is in the central plateau.

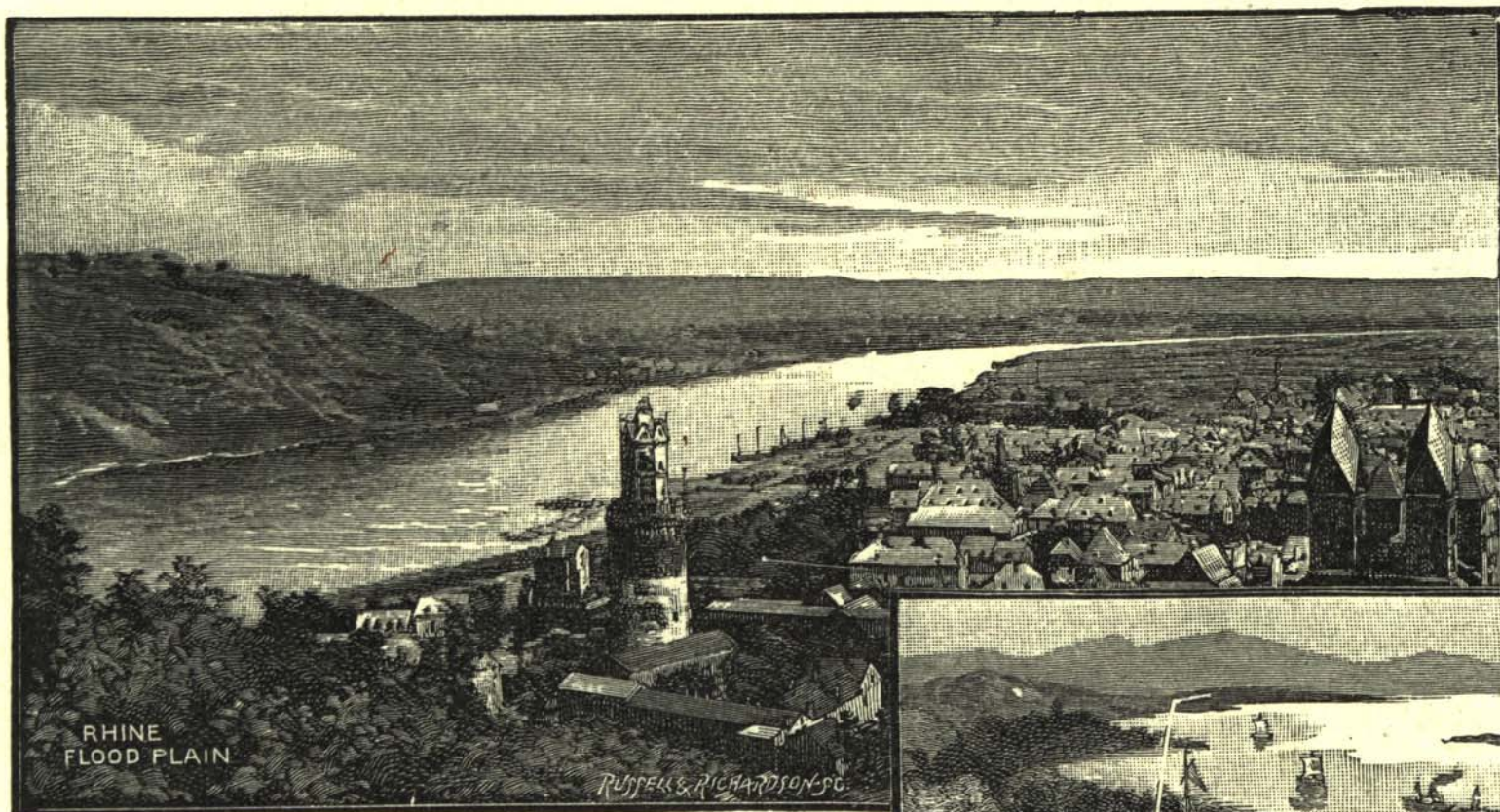
Barcelona is the chief city of eastern Spain. This city exports fruits, olive oil, silk and wine. **Valencia** is noted for its fine silk manufactures. **Malaga** is a wine and fruit port.

PORTUGAL.—The climate of Portugal is very delightful, and the soil in the river valleys is very productive. The exports are quite similar to those of Spain, especially wines, figs, olives, oranges, and lemons.

Lisbon is the principal trade centre of Portugal. This city, as well as **Oporto** farther north, has a large trade in wine and in olive oil.

ITALY. The valley of the Po is very fertile;

grain grows abundantly, and there is excellent pasturage. Vast quantities of wine are produced on the foothills of the Apennines. The slopes on the west-



ern side of this range have a warm climate, and are suited to the growth of oranges, lemons, grapes and other fruits. Italy is noted for its marbles and silks. The leading exports of this country are silks, wine, oil and fruits. The imports are raw cotton, sugar, coffee and other food supplies.

Naples, on the beautiful bay of the same name, is the largest city in Italy.

Rome, the capital, contains the Vatican, or residence of the Pope; and St. Peter's, the largest cathedral in the world. This city is famous for its historic ruins.

Milan is the most important city in the Po valley. Genoa is the chief port of northwest Italy. Florence and Venice have famous art galleries.

TURKEY is a mountainous country, with wide valleys and rich plains between the mountains. The Turks

Egypt and Tripoli. The chief ruler, or *sultan*, is the head of the Mohammedan religion.

GREECE, once the leading country in the world in power, in literature and in art, is now comparatively unimportant. It is chiefly of interest on account of its past. It has a fine climate, and its soil is very productive. Grapes, oranges, lemons, and especially currants are largely grown.

Athens, the capital of Greece,

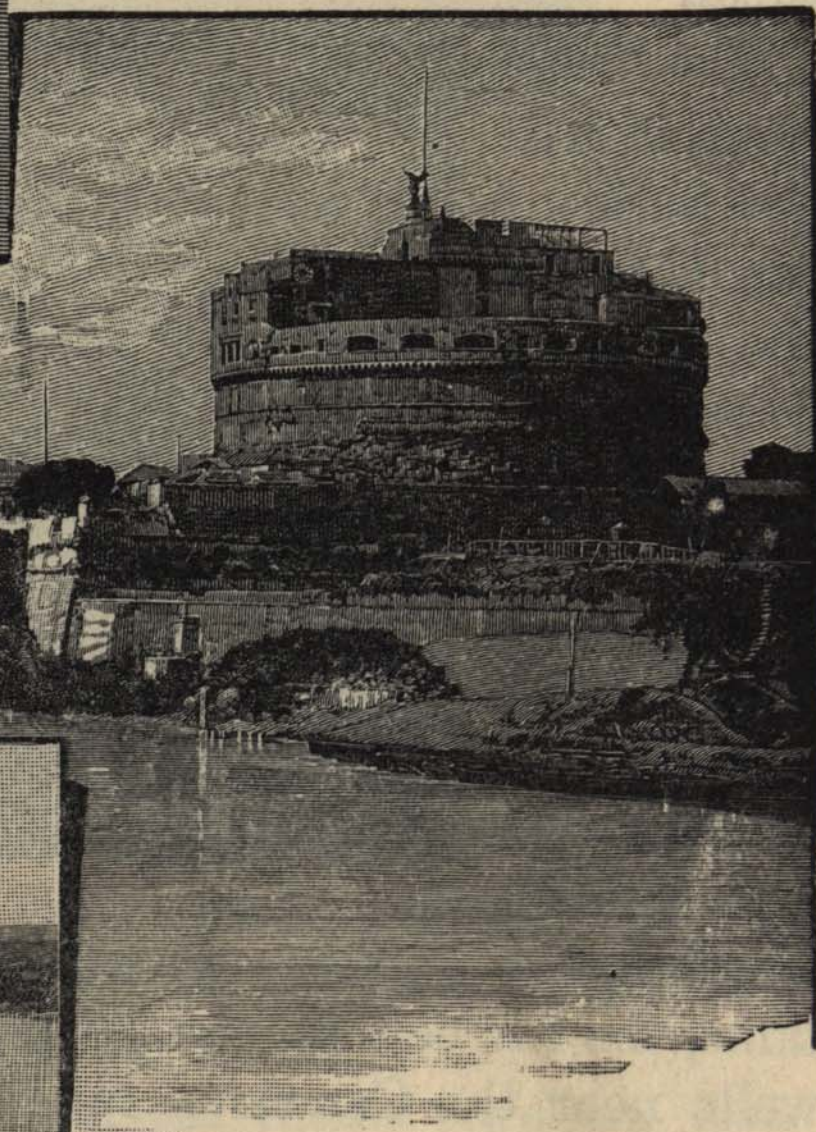


Constantinople, on the Bosphorus.

have not been a very progressive people, and have not much foreign trade.

Constantinople is the capital of the Ottoman Empire, including Turkey in Europe. Turkey in Asia,

is brought from Italy; cotton from the United States; flax from the countries of Low Europe. Switzerland manufactures laces, silks and cotton cloth.



is famous for its history, and for the ruins of its ancient temples.

14. Other Countries of Europe.

SWITZERLAND. The swift streams of this country supply good water power. Here are also mines of brown coal, or *lignite*. Raw silk

Zurich is the principal manufacturing city.

Geneva is noted for its watches, clocks and music boxes.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY. The fertile plain of Hungary yields grain, sugar, beets and grapes. Cattle and sheep here find good pasturage. The surrounding highlands are rich in minerals. The higher slopes are forested.

Vienna is the railroad centre of the empire, and is also a river port. This city has one of the largest and best universities in the world.

Budapest, on the Danube, is the second city in importance in this country.



Kremlin, Moscow.

Odessa and **Riga** are important ports. The former is the largest city on the Black sea and is a famous wheat port.

NORWAY AND SWEDEN.—From 1814 until 1905 these two countries were under one king, although each retained its own parliament. In 1905 the Norwegians elected a king of their own and now these countries are entirely separate. They form the largest peninsula in Europe.

The west coast has a warmer climate than any other country in the world in so high a latitude. Wheat grows as far north as 63°, oats in 68°, and barley in 70°.

Fish, lumber, minerals, and wood-pulp for the manufacture of paper, are the chief exports.

Christiania, the capital, is the chief port of Norway. It has a large trade in lumber.

Bergen is the second port of this country.

Stockholm is the principal city of Sweden. It stands on nine islands and is noted for its beauty.

Gothenburg is the leading port. It is noted for its botanic gardens.

It is the trade centre of the plain of Hungary. **Trieste** is the principal port of the empire.

RUSSIA.—This is the largest country in Europe. It is a vast plain, well watered by large slow-flowing rivers. It has a great range of temperature, as it extends through twenty-three degrees of latitude. The rainfall is small. The chief productions of Russia are—iron, coal, wheat and other grains, flax, hemp, and leather. Many horses and cattle are exported.

St. Petersburg is the capital of the Russian Em-



Geneva.



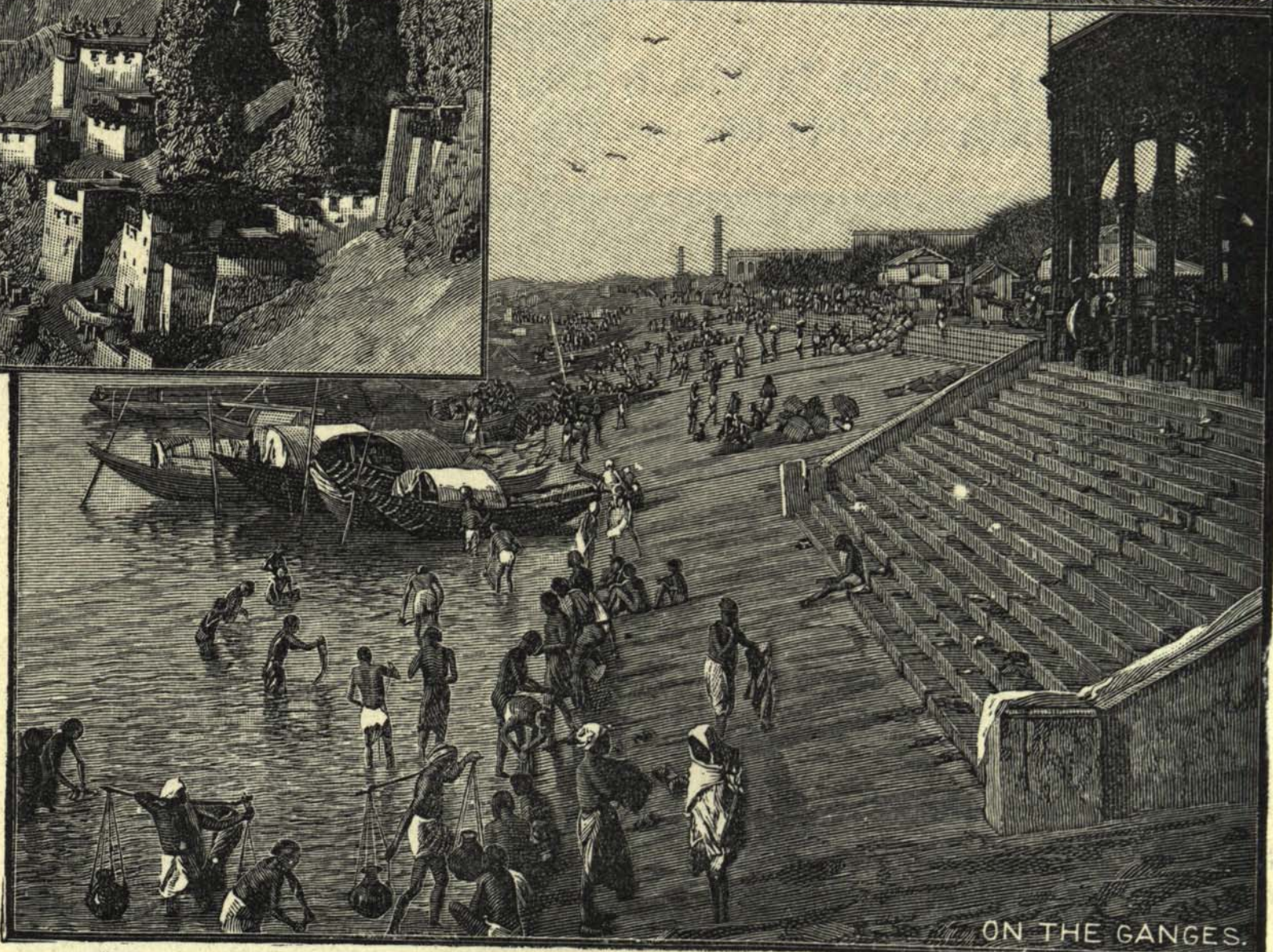
ASIA.

1. Asia covers about one-twelfth of the earth's surface, includes nearly one-third of the total land surface, and is larger than all America. This continent may be roughly divided into three parts,—wide and lofty central highlands, with broad plains on the north, and narrower plains on the east and south. The great Asian highland extends north-east and south-west.

The central part of Asia is an interior basin at a long distance from the sea. This great basin is inclosed by lofty ranges and therefore has but little rain. The northern slope is in the path of the westerly winds but is far from the Atlantic ocean. The rainfall on that slope is therefore light. Summer monsoons yield heavy rains to the south and south-east slopes of Asia.

2. The Highland of Tibet.

South of the Basin region rises the great highland of Tibet.



The rainfall of the inner part of the highland of Tibet is very light, owing to high ranges on its southern or windward border. Many of the valleys of Tibet are like those in the Great Basin of North America, but the former are much the higher. They are covered with waste from the inclosing ranges. Streams from the mountains run into the valleys, but there is not enough water to overflow and reach the sea. The lakes and marshes in these inclosed valleys are therefore salt.

Several of the lakes in the western part of the highland of Tibet are the highest in the world, being about 17,000 feet above sea level.

In some places, where the salt lakes or marshes dry away, the surface is covered with layers of white salt.

The inner part of Tibet is almost a desert. Owing to

3. Map Studies.

Which is the larger, — North America or Asia? What strait separates these continents? Name the smallest ocean lying between them. What other oceans border on Asia?

What oceans lie between North America and Asia? What sea and strait separate Alaska from Asia?

What continents lie on the west and south-west of Asia? What name is given to Europe and Asia together?

What heat belts cross Asia? Over what continent must the westerly winds blow before reaching central Asia?

Which is the coldest coast of Asia? In what direction does the main portion of the Asian highland extend? Which part of the highland looks the highest? Compare the Asian and Rocky Mountain highlands as follows: Which looks the higher? — The wider? — The longer? *See globe map, page 4.*

On which side of the Asian highland is the plain of Siberia? Name three rivers which cross this plain. In what direction is the central plain of North America longest? In what direction is the northern plain of Eurasia longest? Which of these vast plains is the larger? In which heat belts does the northern plain of Eurasia lie?



Into what sea does the Amur river flow? — The Yang-tse river? Name two streams that cross the plain of China.

What river runs eastward in the plain of India?

Draw the general shape of Asia by using three or four straight lines. What is the trend of the Arctic coast? — Of the Pacific coast? — Of the Indian coast?

Sketch each of these coasts. Which is the most irregular? Which is bordered by the greatest number of islands?

What seas partly surround the peninsula of Kamchatka? — The peninsula of Korea (Corea)? — The peninsula of the Deccan? — The Arabian peninsula?

What seas or bays are separated by the peninsula of Kamchatka? Of Korea? Of Indo-China? Of Deccan? Of Arabia? Which of these peninsulas are in southern Asia?

What continents are on the west and south-west of Asia? Name two seas between Europe and Asia; a river and two mountain ranges between the same continents; a sea between Asia and Africa. What gulf is on the east of Arabia?

On which side of Tibet are the Himalaya mountains? What range is on the east of the desert of Gobi? What mountains are north-west of this desert?

Which part of Asia lies nearest the equator? In which heat belts are the three great peninsulas of southern Asia?

Locate the following islands: Borneo, Sumatra, Ceylon, the Philippine and the Japanese groups.

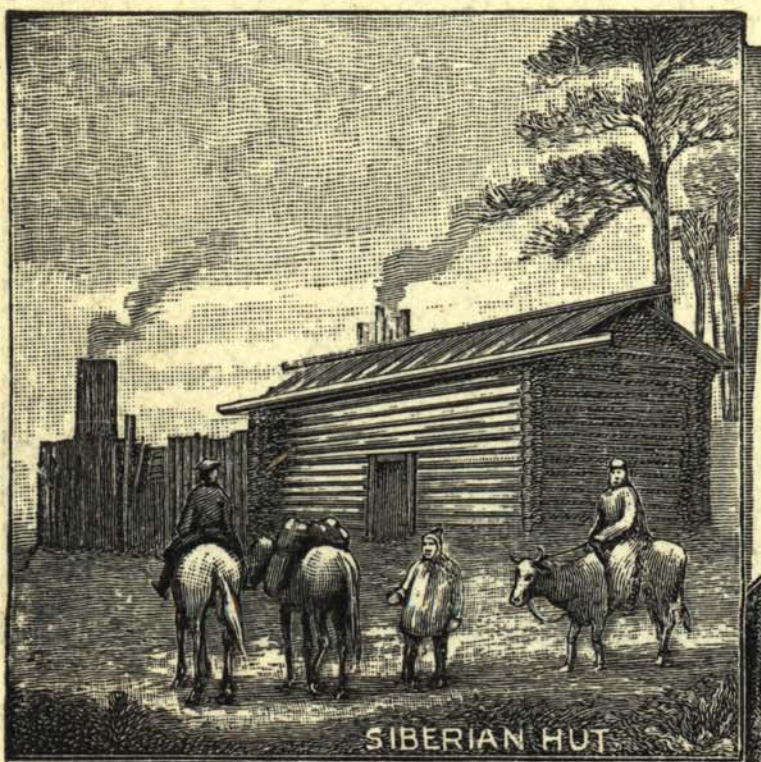


Eurasia.

4. The Altai Highland.

From the rocky shore of Behring strait the world ridge turns to the south-west in Asia. For a long distance low ranges of mountains follow the Pacific coast.

The Yablonoi range runs into the Altai highland which extends inland towards the middle of the continent. The Altai plateau is about as high as the Great Basin in the United States.



SIBERIAN HUT

The rainfall of this far-inland region is light. Most of the rain falls on the mountain ranges.

The Altai high-



MONGOLIAN HUT

land, and a large part of the great plain on the north are forested with cone-bearing trees.

In the broad valleys among the ranges, grain thrives and cattle find good grass land. Most of the towns in this region are built near the foot of the mountains, where the streams can be used to irrigate the land.

5. Central Basin Region.

The dry Basin region of central Asia is south and south-east of the Altai highland. The eastern part of this almost rainless basin is called the *desert of Gobi*. The western part is the *Middle Basin*.

The Basin regions of Asia and North America are

alike in many respects. They are about the same distance from the equator,—nearly half way to the north pole. Their surfaces are broken by low ranges, between which lie long troughs. None of their streams reach the sea, but all waste away, or flow into salt lakes or marshes.

In both basins, the sides of the trough-like valleys are covered with coarse waste from the ranges, while the middle parts of the valleys receive the finer waste carried by the few streams. Strong winds that sweep over portions of the surface lay bare the rocky ledges, and drift the sand into dunes. Most of the towns are built near the mountains where the streams flow out into the open valleys. These streams are fed mostly by rain or by snow melting on the high border ranges.

Less than half the region marked *Gobi* on the maps is really a barren waste.

In eastern Gobi, summer rains sometimes last for two or three days. Grass then springs up and provides food for the camels and horses in the caravans which carry tea from China to Siberia, whence it is taken to Russia. Over a large part of the so-called *desert of Gobi*, camels and sheep eke out a



SYRIAN



ARAB



HINDOOS



CHINAMAN

living on grass and bushes.

The southern slopes of the Himalayas face moist monsoons from over the Indian ocean, and have very heavy rainfall when the south-west trade winds of summer blow.

On the east, the highland of Tibet sends long streams down the slopes of China. Several large rivers from the highland bend also to the south-east. These rivers flow in long valleys

sea is not quite fifty miles long. Its surface is about one-fourth of a mile below the level of the ocean.

North of the Dead sea is a beautiful lake known as the *sea of Galilee*. This lake also is below the sea level, but its water is fresh because the river Jordan forms its outlet. This river also feeds it.

The Jordan and the two lakes form a one long valley. It is shut in by high land on both sides. One range near the south-west shore of the Dead sea contains a deposit of rock salt about six miles in length.

The peninsula of Arabia is mostly a desert plateau. In many respects it resembles the Great Basin, but is much drier. Dates and wheat are raised in some of the narrow valleys near mountain ranges. Camels and horses also graze there.

The hilly slopes near the southern end of the Red sea are famous for their coffee crops.

7. The Arctic and Caspian Slopes.

The northern part of Eurasia consists mainly of a broad low coastal plain. The Ural mountains run north and south across the plain and

Lake Baikal is the largest body of fresh water in Asia, but it is not quite half so large as Lake Superior. The water of this lake is very deep, and it abounds in sal-

mon. In summer many seals are caught along its shores.

A large part of the plain of Siberia lies within the Arctic circle. For two months or more in



winter, the greater portion of the Arctic coast of this plain is in darkness. The longest period of summer daylight lasts for an equal length of time. South of the Arctic circle, in all parts of the Siberian lowland, the summer days are long and the winter days are short.

Being far from the equator and far inland from the warmer oceans, the plain of Siberia has long and very cold winters. The summers are short. They are cool in the northern part of the plain, but warm in the southern part.

The map of the heat belts, pages 23 and 24, shows how far south the cold belt extends in Siberia. There, in the lower part of the Lena basin, is the coldest winter region known in the world. The extreme cold is due to the fact that the region is far inland from the warmer oceans, that the winter nights are long, and that warm winds from the far south cannot cross the great central highland.

Along the Arctic coast of Siberia are mossy, marshy plains called *tundras*. They resemble the marshy plains along the Arctic coast of North America.

In summer large herds of reindeer visit the tundras to feed on reindeer moss. White bears and seals are seen along the Arctic shore, but



Cedar of Lebanon.

form a part of the boundary between Asia and Europe. The Arctic lowland in Asia is known as the *plain of Siberia*. Nearly all of this plain is in the basins of three large river systems.

both the plant and the animal life are scanty. The region is dreary and desolate, except for a few weeks in summer.

South of the tundras, as in North America, lie the forest plains. Most of the trees are cone-bearers,—larch, fir and pine. The forest belt crosses northern Eurasia, from the Pacific ocean to the Atlantic. In Asia the forests extend southward to the border of the desert of Gobi, the Middle Basin, and the dry plains around the Caspian sea.

and many cattle, sheep and horses graze on the plains.

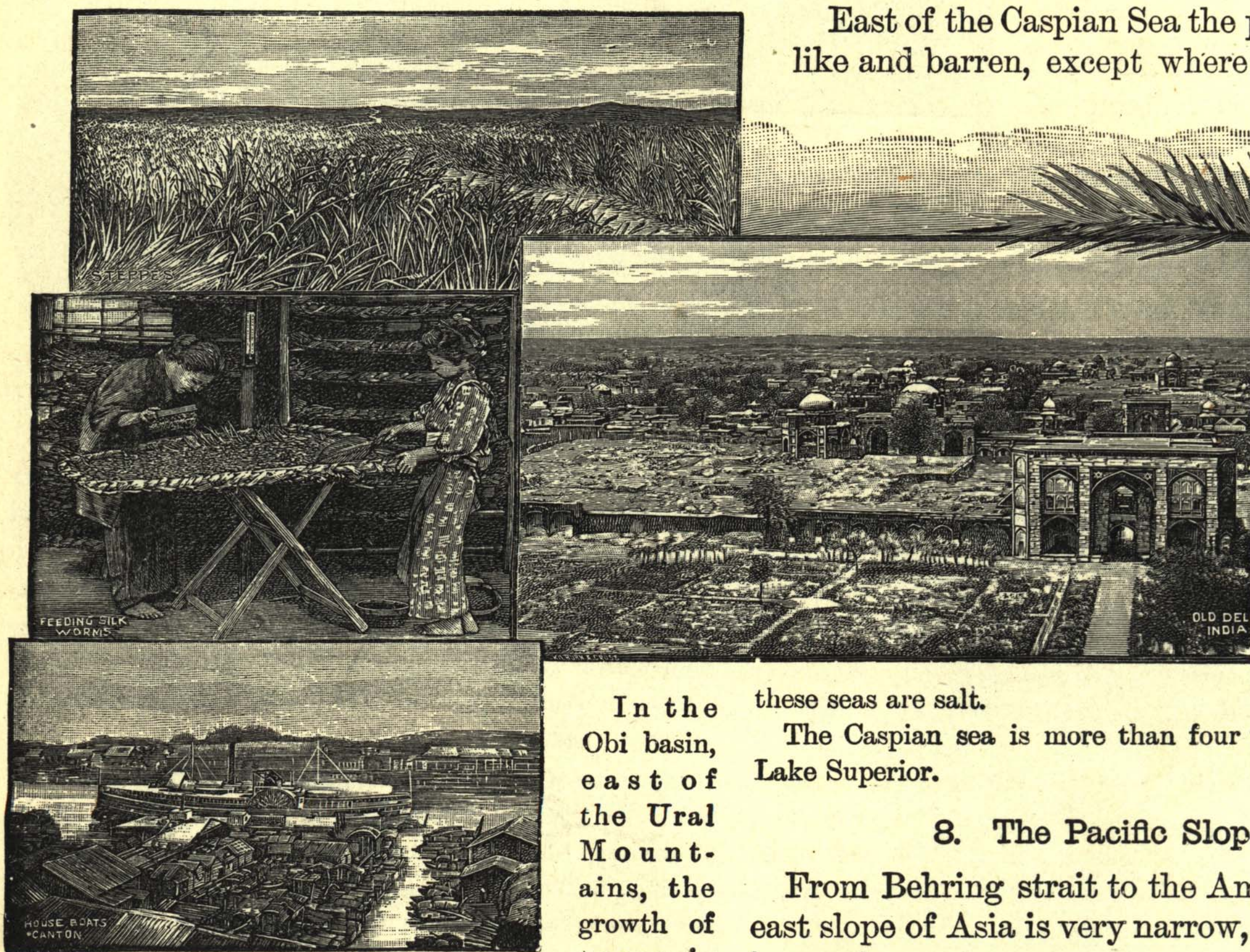
The south-west part of the northern plain of Asia is drained towards the Caspian and Aral seas. As the region is low and far inland, it has only light rainfall, and is therefore almost treeless.

The grass in any one part of this region is not plentiful enough to support the cattle and sheep. The people therefore wander with their herds from place to place, living in tents and carrying all their possessions with them. Such wandering people are called *nomads*.

East of the Caspian Sea the plain is desert-like and barren, except where streams from

the mountains are led aside in canals to irrigate the land.

The surface of the Caspian sea is lower than the level of the ocean, but the surface of the Aral sea is higher. Both



In the Obi basin, east of the Ural Mountains, the growth of trees is

these seas are salt.

The Caspian sea is more than four times as large as Lake Superior.

8. The Pacific Slope.

From Behring strait to the Amur basin, the east slope of Asia is very narrow, and therefore has no large streams.

The Amur river is the natural highway from the Altai plateau to the Pacific coast. The basin of this stream is so far from the equator that the winters are long and severe. The region is thinly settled and is largely overgrown with forests.

The south-east slopes of Asia, including the basins of the Yellow and Yang-tse rivers, are watered partly by rains from the summer monsoon, and partly from win-

very dense. Here the forested swamps cover many thousand square miles.

The forest belt is broken in many places by wide open plains. In the warmer parts of the Siberian river basins, the plains yield harvests of wheat, rye, and oats.

Along the southern border of the forest belt, the open plains, or *steppes*, are covered with fine, fertile soil. Large crops of grain are raised,

ter storms. The summer rains are much the more abundant.

The great delta plain of China is made of soil carried down by the Yellow and Yang-tse rivers,—mostly by the former. This delta plain contains many thousand square miles, and is one of the most thickly settled regions in the world.



Loess Beds, Yellow River Basin, China.

Above the delta plain, the Yellow river flows through a district covered with deep, yellowish soil. This was brought as dust by the winds from the dry inland Basin region. The area covered by this soil is far greater than that of the lava plains of the Columbia plateau region.

In some places the yellowish soil, called *loess*, is hundreds of feet in depth. It fills valleys, buries hills, and rises far up the slopes of the mountain ranges. Rivers have cut deep valleys in it, and in the sides of the valleys, at points which the streams no longer reach, millions of Chinese people have dug caves for homes. This soil is very fertile, and gardens cover a large part of the region.

The Yellow river has carried down countless tons of the yellowish soil, and has made of it the larger part of the great delta plain of China. Each year the plain grows farther into the sea, for no ocean current strong enough to carry away the silt sweeps past the mouth of the river. Cities in China that were once seaports are now far inland.

The Yellow river takes its name from the yellowish soil which discolors the water. This river performs its chief work in making delta lands, for it is of little use to steamers entering from the sea. The current in some places is very swift, and numerous bars form not only at the mouth of the river, but also far upstream.

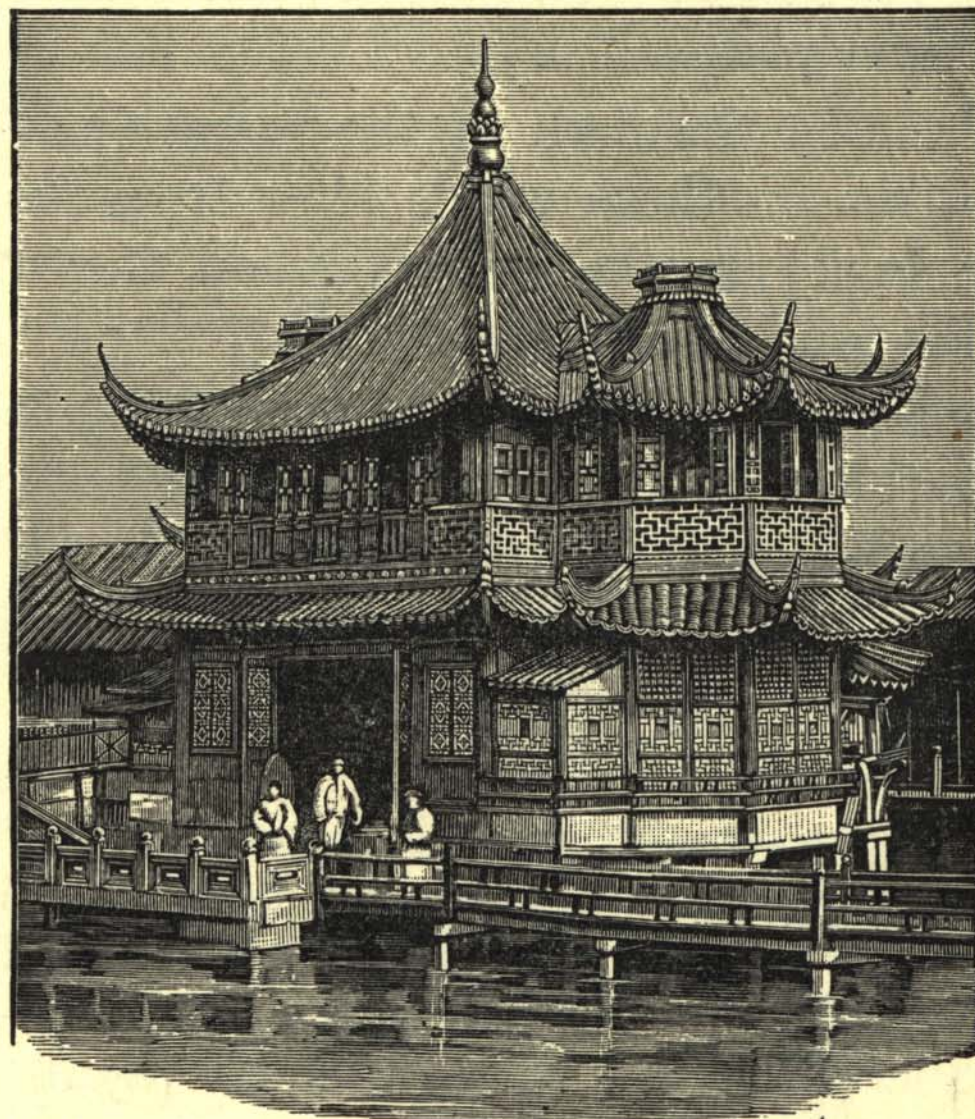
As the river has changed its course, and as it is hardly navigable, only a few large cities have grown up along its banks.

The Yang-tse river has built the southern part of the great delta plain of China. This stream forms the best waterway on the eastern slope of Asia, and is open to large steamers for more than a thousand miles from the ocean. Many of the greatest cities in China have grown up on the banks of the Yang-tse river.

Above the delta plain, for a long distance inland, the basins of the Yellow and Yang-tse rivers are rolling or hilly. The western portions of the great basins are in the mountainous regions of Tibet.

The leading exports from China are tea and silk. Rice and a grain called *millet* are among the chief food products.

Canals extend almost the whole width of the great delta plain of China, and form fine waterways. They supply water also for large tracts of land on which rice



Chinese Tea House.

and other products are raised. A large inland trade is carried on by way of these canals and rivers.

More than two thousand years ago, a high and wide wall was built along the former boundary of China, to shut out fierce Tartar tribes on the north. The wall

runs for more than a thousand miles over mountains and through wide valleys. Many parts of the great wall are now crumbling to ruins.

China contains about one-fourth of the people in the world. The Chinese belong to the yellow race.

From the Tibetan highland long mountain ranges extend into the great peninsula of Indo-China. Swift streams flow in the valleys between these ranges. The longest of the streams is the Mekong river.

The course of the Mekong is in many places broken by rapids. The river is therefore not open to navigation, except for about three hundred miles from its mouth. The Mekong is building a delta plain, but it is not nearly so large as the delta plain of the Yellow river.

9. India.

The great country of India is bordered on the north by the Himalayas. In the south it contains the plateau of the Deccan in the large V-shaped peninsula. Between the Himalayas and the Deccan are broad river plains.

India is in the path of the monsoons. In the hot season these winds blow from the sea to the land; in the colder season they blow from the land to the sea.

The Himalaya mountains form the greatest rain and snow producer in the path of the summer monsoons from over the Indian Ocean. Both the northern and the southern slopes of this range are drained by rivers that flow into the low plains of India.

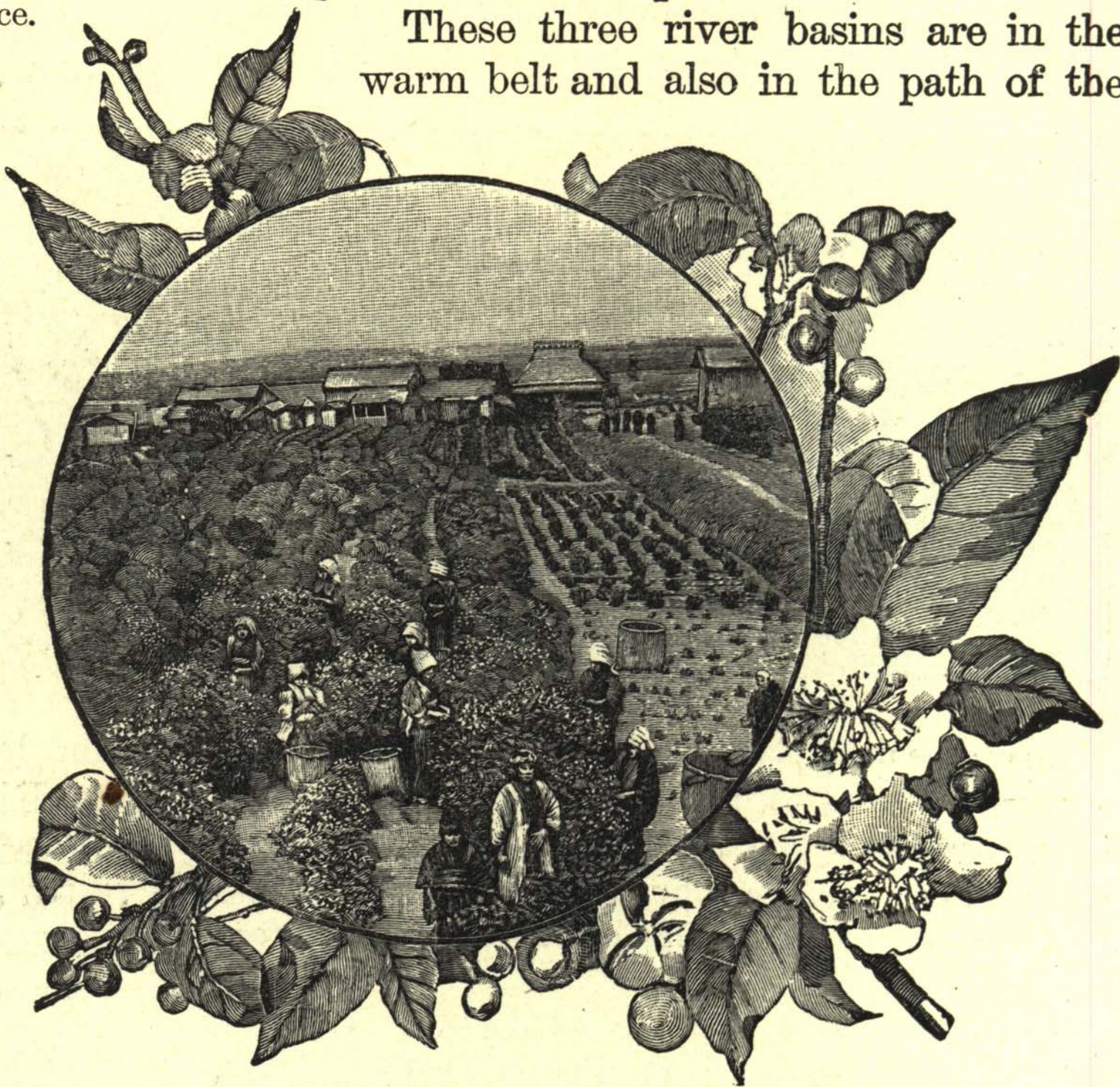
The largest annual rainfall in any part of the world is supposed to be at the town of Cherrapunji, in the mountains, about two hundred miles north of the bay of Bengal. This town is a little more than 4,000 feet above sea level, and is walled in on the north by steep ranges rising 2,000 feet higher.



A Chinese Junk.

Most of the rivers of the plain of India are included in three systems,—the Indus on the west, the Brahmaputra on the east, and the Ganges in the middle part.

These three river basins are in the warm belt and also in the path of the



Tea Farm.

moist south-west monsoons. The climate is therefore hot or warm most of the year. The heavy rains fall while the summer monsoon lasts. The dry season occurs when the winds blow from the land to the sea.

The upper portion of the Indus lowland, near the foot of the Himalayas, is well watered, and is the richest wheat region in India. The lower part of this river basin is a desert.

The plain of northern India, like that of the valley of California, is formed of land waste brought by the rivers from the mountains. Many branches of the Ganges rise in the southern slope of the Himalayas.

The Ganges system has built very large flood plains, sloping only a few inches to the mile. In the rainy season these plains are flooded far and wide, thus receiving fresh soil from the highland slopes. The Ganges and Brahmaputra rivers unite in making a large delta plain crossed by a great network of distributaries.

The plains of the Ganges basin are carefully irrigated by means of canals and ditches leading from the rivers. The rainfall of the summer season is thus made to serve through the entire year, often through long periods of drought.

Rice is the leading crop in the delta lands and in the lower parts of the flood plains. Farther inland, *millet* is the chief product and is the staple food in nearly all parts of India. Cotton is the most valuable article of export from the Ganges plain.

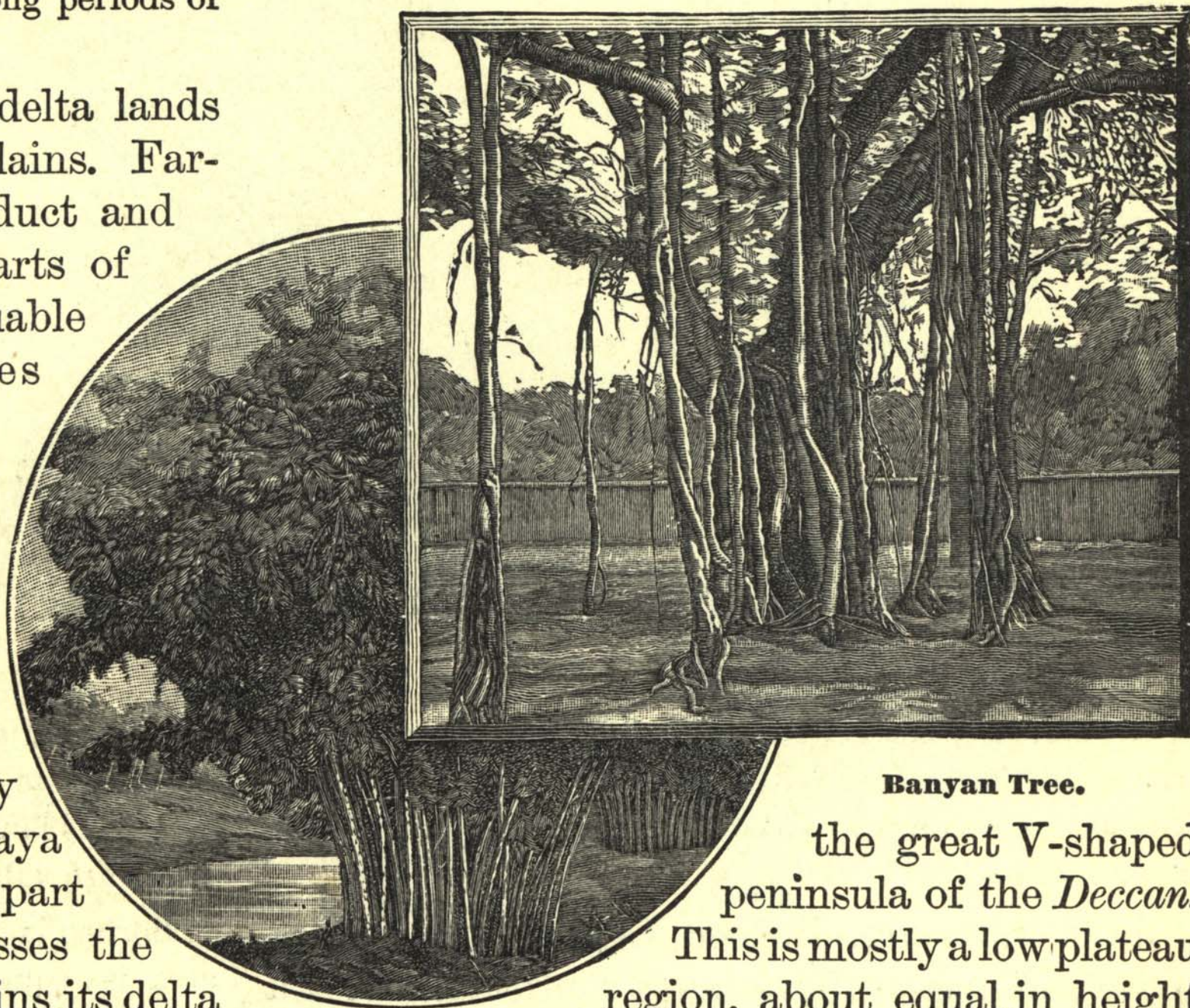
The Ganges river is navigable for more than a thousand miles through its great flood plains, and is alive with boats carrying products from place to place.

The Brahmaputra river, like the Indus, flows in a deep inland valley on the north flank of the Himalaya range. Cutting through the eastern part of the range, the Brahmaputra crosses the low plain of northeast India, and joins its delta with that of the Ganges river. This great double delta is slowly growing southward into the bay of Bengal.

The lowlands of northern India, except the desert

Most of the natives are called *Hindus*. They belong to the white race.

Southward from the Ganges basin extends



Banyan Tree.

Bamboo.

the great V-shaped peninsula of the *Deccan*.

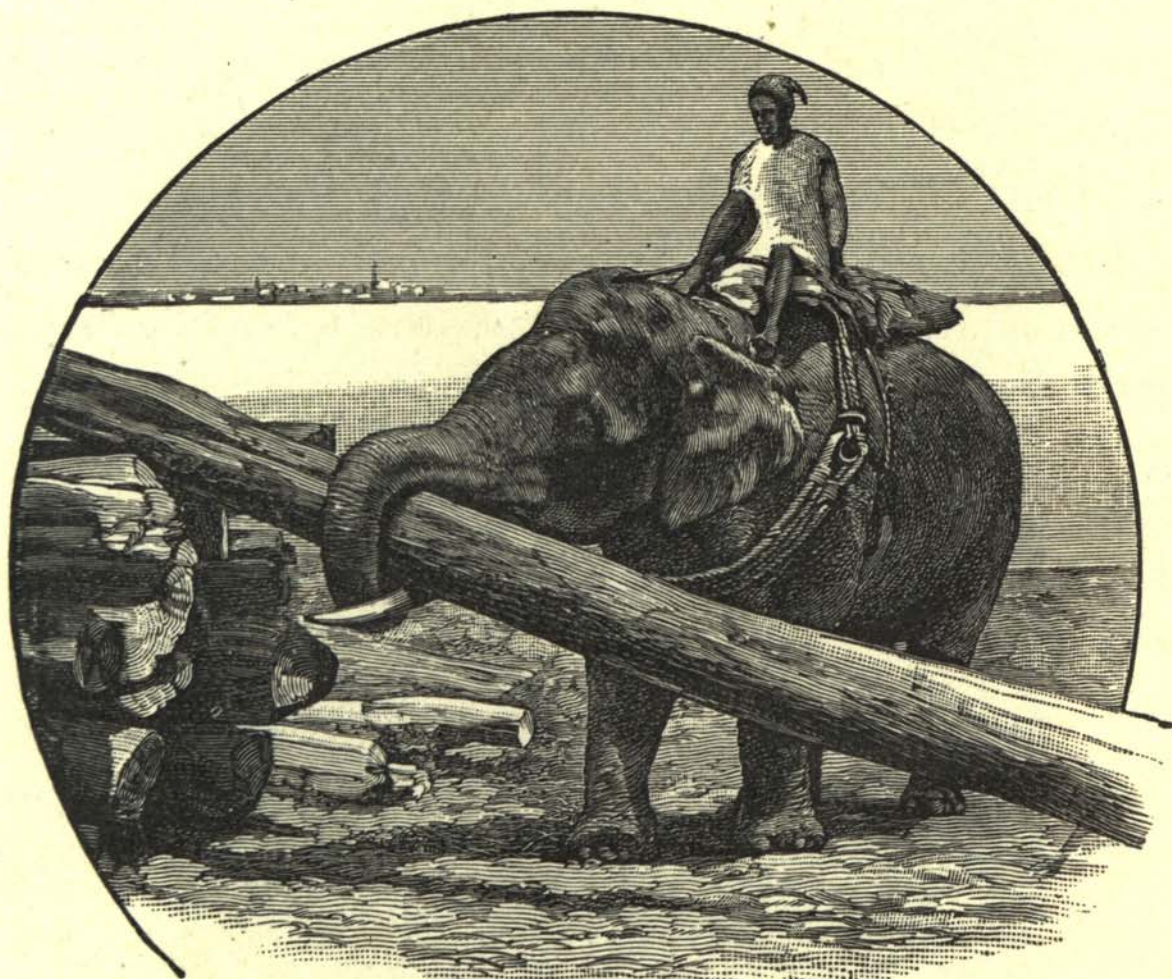
This is mostly a low plateau region, about equal in height to the Appalachian highland. The peninsula has low ranges facing the sea on both sides, and is partly separated from the rest of India by a hilly range on the north. Within the triangle thus formed, about 100,000,000 people now have their homes,—many more than dwell in North America.

The lava-flows of the Deccan peninsula have been fully as great as those in and around the Columbia plateau. In each case the molten rock covered many thousand square miles. The Deccan lava-flows are much the older and the more deeply cut by valleys. The surface is finely weathered, making dark soil that is very fertile.

10. Asiatic Islands.

Long curving chains of islands lie east and southeast of Asia, and partly inclose large border seas. These islands contain hundreds of volcanoes, many of which are now active.

The large islands in the Japan group consist mainly of old volcanic hilly country, but there are also many wide plains. Tea, grain, and the mulberry tree are raised in the uplands,



Working Elephant.

region of the lower Indus, are densely peopled. These lowlands, together with the V-shaped peninsula on the south, support about one-fifth of the people in the world.

while nearly all the lowlands are used for rice fields. Two crops of rice are taken from the fields each year.

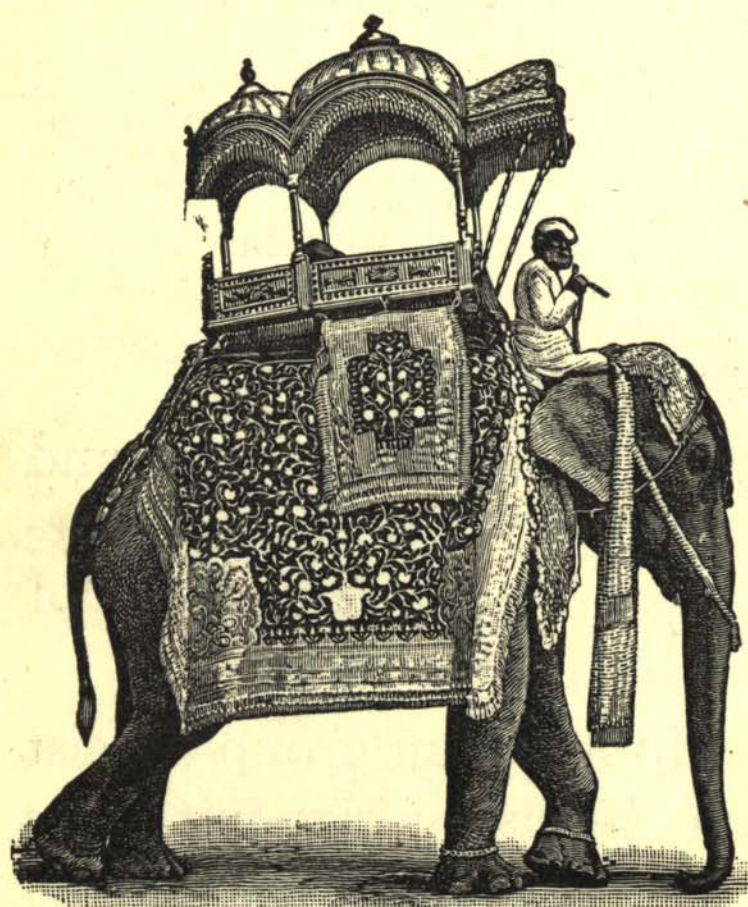
A coarse grass-like plant called *bamboo* grows in Japan, as well as in most parts of south-east Asia and the border islands. Bamboo is also found in other warm lands. The hollow-jointed stems grow to the height of forty or fifty feet, but some stems are more than seventy feet high.

Houses and boats are made of bamboo stems. The seeds and tender shoots are served as food, on dishes formed from the joints of the stalks. The softer parts of the stalks are beaten into pulp, and are used in making paper. Strips of bamboo are made into baskets, chairs, beds and various other articles.

Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, the Philippines and many other islands south-east of Asia are often called the *East Indies*.

Thousands of years ago these islands were probably connected with Asia. The seas around them are mostly shallow, and the broken coastlines formed by the drowning of valleys show that the land has settled.

The groups of Islands in the East Indies have a hot climate and abundant rainfall. Their soil is therefore very productive. Sugar, coffee, tea, spices and rice in large quantities are raised on these islands, but chiefly in Java.



State Elephant, India.



A Hindu.

The *banyan* tree is found in some parts of the East Indies, and on the mainland of south-east Asia. The branches of this tree send down shoots that take root in the ground. These shoots also branch, and the new branches send down other shoots. A single tree may thus spread and form a grove covering several acres.

Java is the most productive and the most densely populated island of the East Indies. This one small island supports a population equal to about four times that of Canada.

Most of the people in the East Indies belong to the brown race. Many white people from Europe have settled along the coasts of the islands, especially in the seaports. Nearly all the islands are claimed by nations in Europe.

Sumatra consists mainly of a mountain region along its south-west coast, and broad lowlands stretching from this highland to the north-east coast. The rivers which cross this lowland are building great deltas. Coffee and sugar are valuable exports.

Borneo is one of the largest islands in the world. Its area is equal to nearly one-tenth that of Canada. This great island has a central plateau from which several ranges branch into the coastal lowland.

The Philippine group consists of more than 1,000 islands. In the more rugged portions of these islands are found thousands of dwarf people called *Negritos*. The more fertile lands are held by Malay people who have driven off the *Negritos*. There are also many Chinese and some white settlers,—the latter being chiefly Spaniards. Rice is the staple food of the people.

Large quantities of sugar, hemp, and tobacco are raised on these islands, and are the most valuable exports from Manilla, the chief seaport.



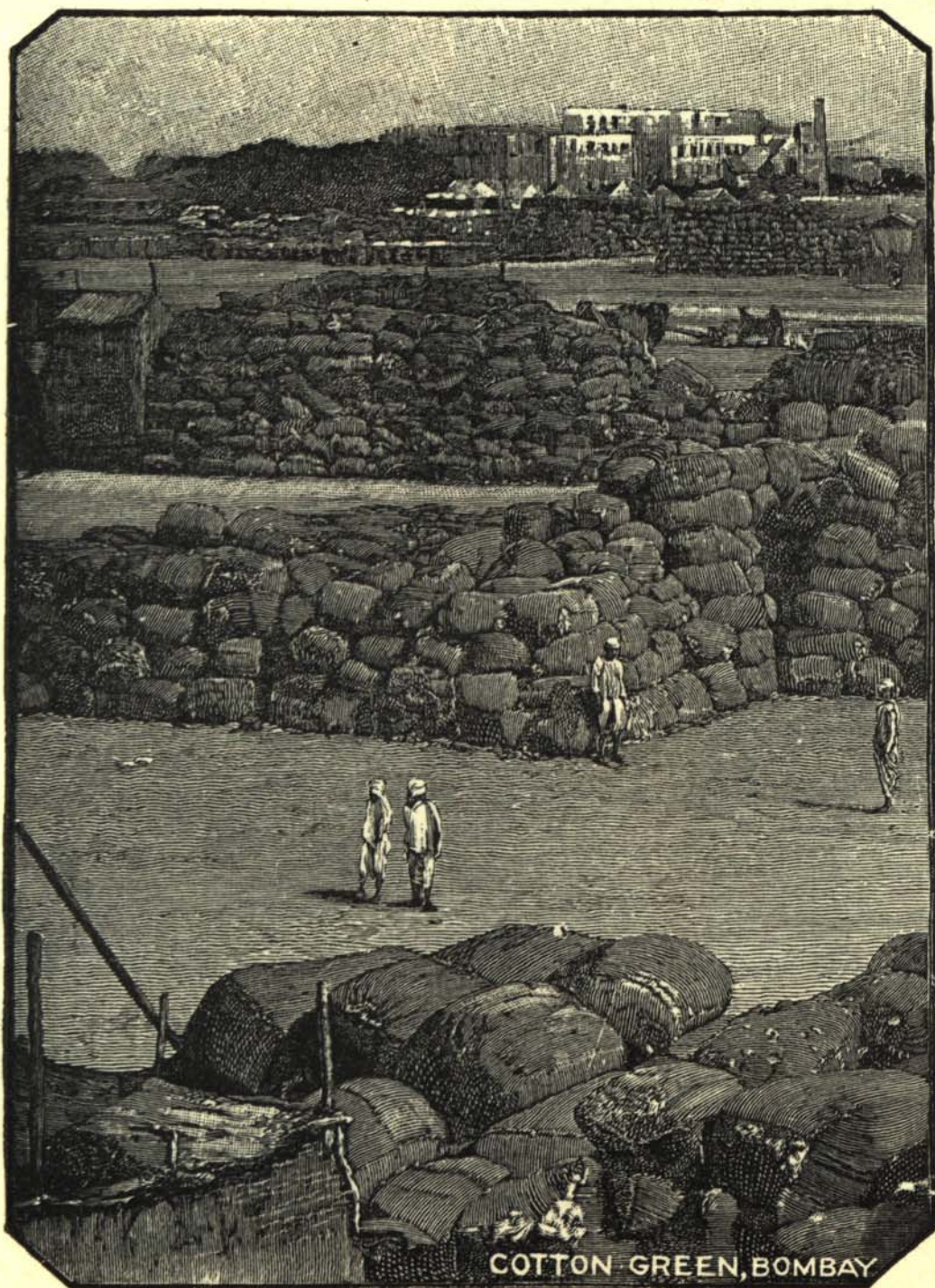
Cart drawn by Zebus, India.

11. Countries of Asia.

INDIA.—The Empire of India consists of twelve Provinces directly governed by the British, and about one hundred and fifty States under native rulers who acknowledge the sovereignty of the British Crown. It is one of the most interesting countries in the world. Its civilization is one of the oldest, and its literature is one of the most ancient.

This country trades chiefly with Great Britain, China, Italy, France, and the United States. The most valuable exports from India are cotton and cotton seed, wheat, rice, opium, jute, tea and indigo. The principal imports are cotton cloth and hardware. The yearly exports amount to \$425,000,000 and the imports to about \$310,000,000. There are more than 5,000 vessels engaged in the Indian trade.

Bombay and **Calcutta** are the greatest seaports of India. Calcutta, the capital of India, is on the Hoogly river, in the Ganges delta. The city is the principal shipping-point for the produce of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra basins. Railroads, rivers and canals form the inland highways of trade to and from this great port. No large rivers carry products to Bombay, but the city is reached by railroads from nearly all parts of India. This port owes its rapid growth largely to its situation on the west coast, much nearer than Calcutta to the Suez canal and the British Isles.



Madras is the largest sea-port of southern India.

Benares is the chief seat of the Hindu religion, and is one of the oldest cities in the world. In this holy city of the Hindus, the north bank of the Ganges is lined with great temples.

Rangun is the chief port of Burmese India. This city has a large trade in rice.

Delhi and **Mandalay** are large centres of trade in India.

FRENCH INDO-CHINA. French Indo-China includes Anam, Cochin-China, Cambodia, and other provinces. All these are under the control of France.

The products of French Indo-China are similar to those of British India. **Hanoi**, **Hué**, **Saigon** and **Pnompenh** are the chief centres of trade.

SIAM. This country is ruled by a native king,—an absolute monarch. The resources of the country are poorly developed. Teak and rice are the principal products. **Bangkok** is the chief city.

EAST INDIES. Sumatra, Java, Celebes, and middle and southern Borneo are possessions of Holland. They are called the *Dutch East Indies*. North-west Borneo is under the control of Great Britain. The United States controls the Philippine islands.

CHINA.—This great country is larger than the whole of Europe. The people have lived apart from other nations, and have preserved distinct manners and customs. Recently, England, Russia, France and Germany have obtained enlarged treaties with China, so that the country is being opened up rapidly to foreign trade. The British nation controls the greater part of China's foreign trade. The island of Hongkong, on the coast of China, is a British colony. It exports Chinese tea and silk; and imports opium, cotton cloth, sugar and flour for the great empire near by.

Canada imports tea and silk from China,—chiefly from the ports of Shanghai, Canton and Fuchau.

Peking, the capital, and Canton are the largest cities in the Chinese Empire.

Yarkand is in the principal oasis of the province of Eastern Turkestan. **Lassa** is the chief city of Tibet.

JAPAN.—Japan is the only limited monarchy in Asia, having its own ruler. All the other independent countries are absolute monarchies.

Japan is often called the "Great Britain of the Pacific." It resembles Great Britain in many respects, chiefly in its insular position and its naval power.

The exports of Japan are taken from its

rice swamps, its silk-worm nurseries, and its tea farms. The imports are mostly cloth, metal goods, and petroleum. Japanese trade is carried on chiefly with Great Britain and the United States

Japan is the most progressive of Asiatic countries.

The Japanese have good schools, railway and telegraph lines, and large manufactories. Among the latter are iron foundries, glass-works, paper mills, cotton and silk mills. The people of Japan are noted for the weaving of silk and the carving of ivory.

Tokyo is the capital and the commercial centre of Japan. Only two cities in America are larger than Tokyo.

Yokohama, on the bay of Tokyo, is the chief sea-port.

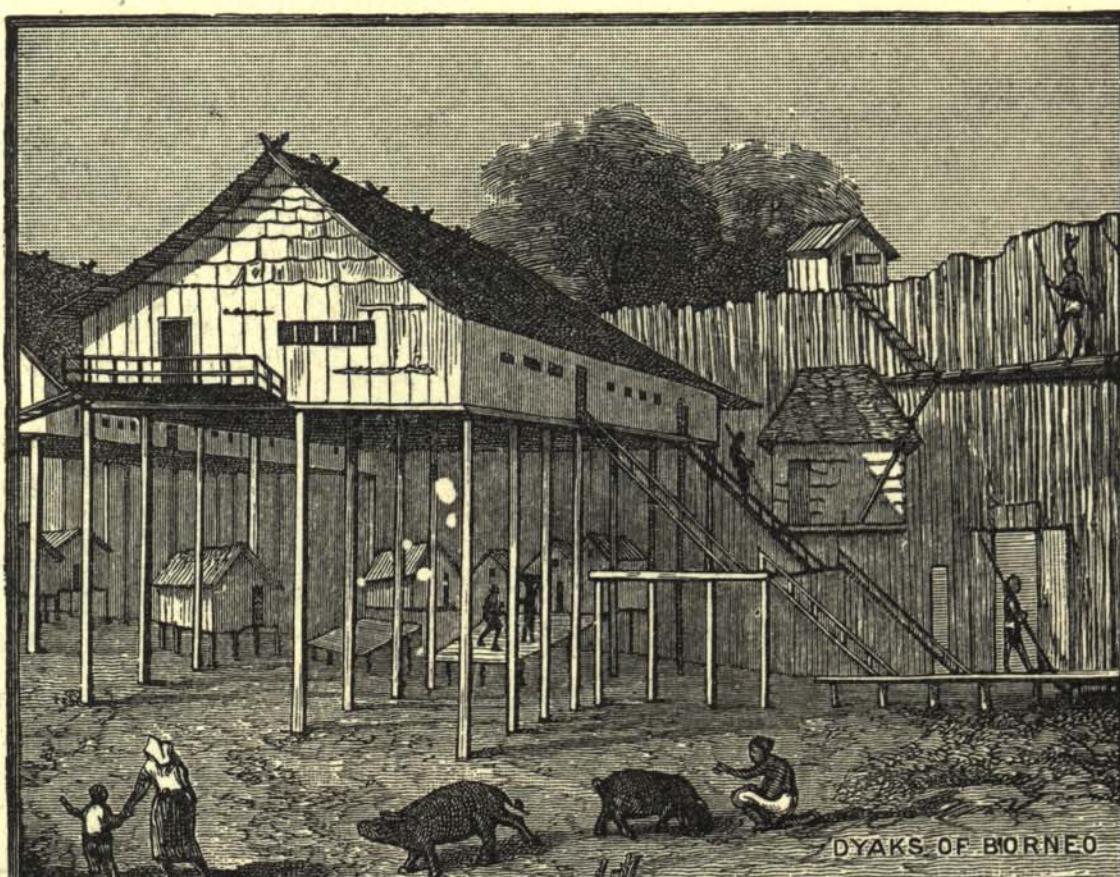
Osaka is an important manufacturing city. **Kioto** is surrounded by a great number of Buddhist temples.

KOREA.—The Japanese have recently won for Korea its freedom from Chinese authority. The foreign trade of this

country is small, and is mostly in the hands of the Japanese. **Seoul** is the chief city of Korea.

By the terms of the China-Japanese treaty of 1895, Korea was made an independent kingdom,—an absolute monarchy.

RUSSIA IN ASIA.—Siberia and Trans-Caucasia* are parts of the great Russian Empire, which comprises about one-



* NOTE.—Trans-Caucasia is the name of the Asiatic portion of the large Russian province of Caucasus, lying on both sides of the Caucasus mountains.

seventh of the land surface of the earth. Bokhara and Khiva also are under the control of Russia.

Tashkent, the largest city in Asiatic Russia, is in a district made fertile by irrigation. **Tiflis** is a city through which Russia conducts a large part of its trade with Persia and other countries of south-west Asia. The railroad which carries great quantities of petroleum from **Baku** to the port of **Batum** passes through Tiflis.

Irkutsk and **Vladivostok** are centres of Siberian trade. The latter city is the Pacific port of Siberia. The Russians have recently got permis-

sion to cross the north-east part of China to secure a winter port for the terminus of the Siberian railroad, one of the greatest railroads in the world, which has recently been constructed by Russia.

PERSIA.—This country occupies the western part of the plateau of Iran, and is about 5,000 feet above the sea. Cereals and the opium-poppy grow in the fertile portions of Persia, chiefly in the districts near the Caspian sea. Many sheep are reared in the highland regions. Dates thrive along the coast, and pearls are obtained from the border waters on the south. The Persians are famous for their hand-made carpets and rugs.



Mikado's Palace, Japan.

Teherân and **Tabriz** are the principal cities.

AFGHANISTAN is a very mountainous country. The people are divided into about 400 tribes. The country is important to the Brit-

ish because it controls the passes that are the gateways to India from the north-west. This country is crossed by the caravan routes that lead into India. **Kabul** is the chief city.

BALUCHISTAN is little more than a province of India. It is a rough plateau, with little fertile soil. The people of this rugged country are mostly shepherds. **Khelat** is the largest city.

ASIATIC TURKEY. Turkey now controls the portion of Arabia lying along the Red Sea, and most of the Arabian territory on the Persian Gulf.

Smyrna is the largest city and port of Asiatic Turkey. **Damascus** has an extensive caravan trade with the

Arabs. The products of this country are similar to those of Persia, but the Red sea coast is famous for its coffee. **Mocha** is the chief port for the shipment of this coffee. Mohammed was born in **Mecca** (Mekka).

Jerusalem is famous for its religious history.

ARABIA.—This country is the largest peninsula in the world. It is nearly one-third as large as Canada. Its population is about the same as that of Canada. The Turks control the chief coasts on the Red Sea and Persian Gulf; the English own the island of Perim and Aden, controlling the entrance to the Red Sea. Aden is a very important city. It has a strong fort and does a large trade.

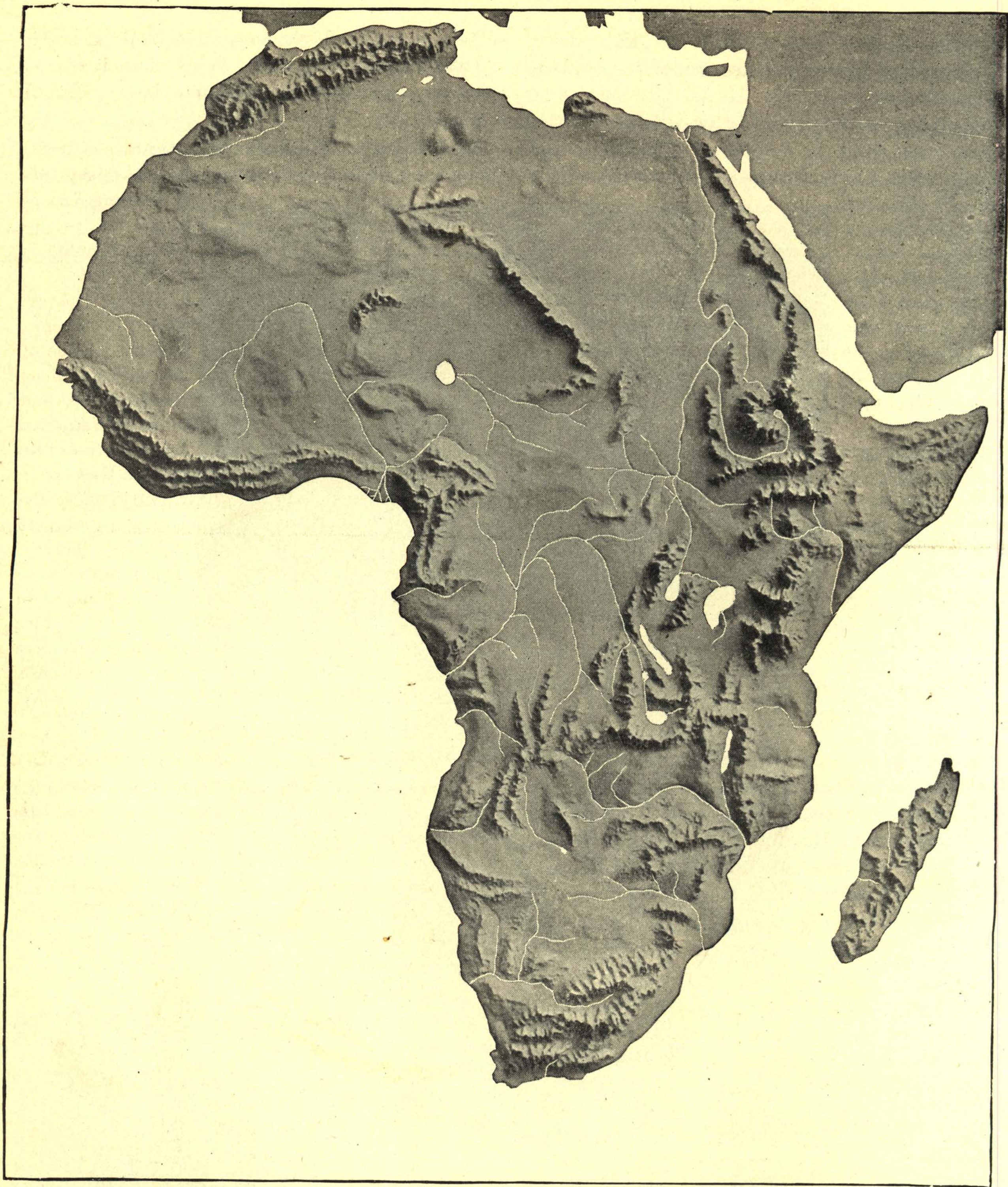
Arabia, like Persia and Turkey, is a Mohammedan country.

OMAN is an independent Arabian State.

Maskat, the capital, exports dates, and imports rice.



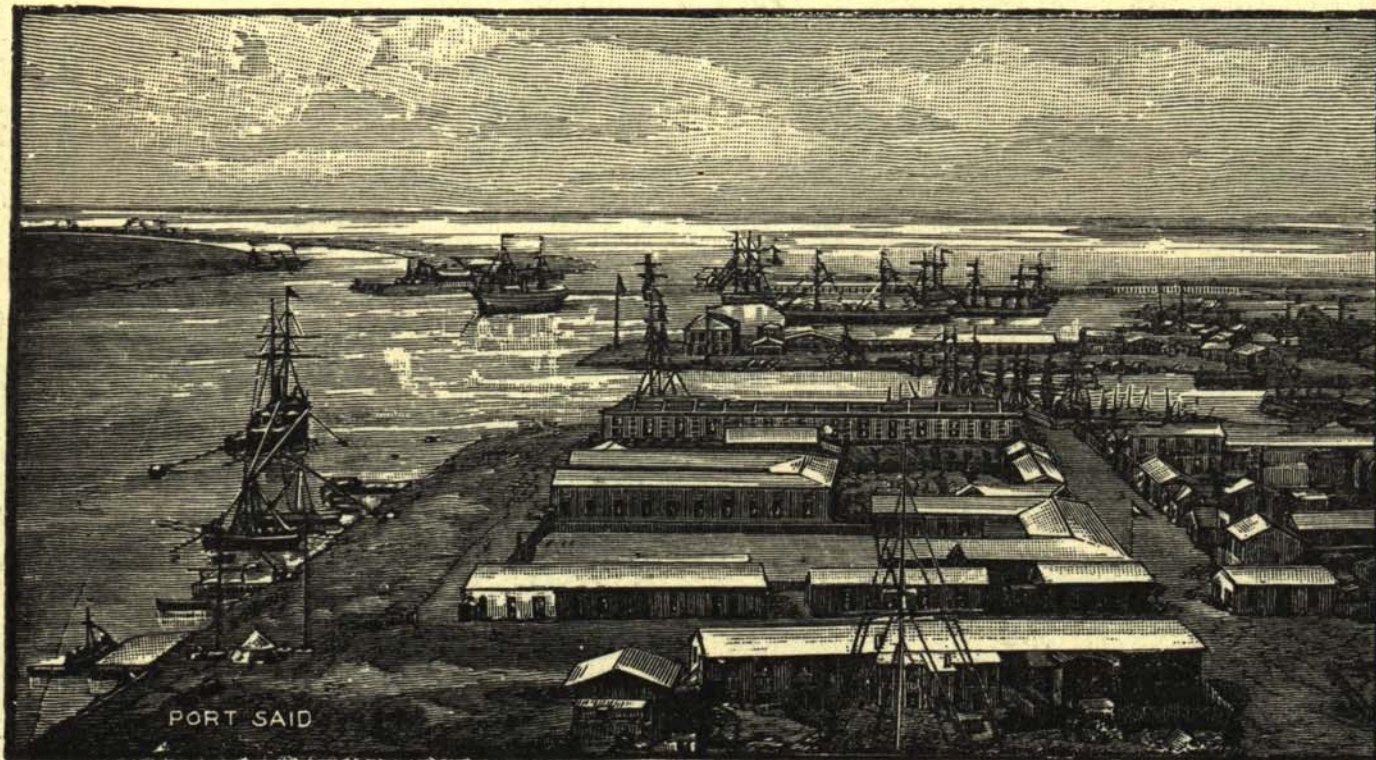
Fusiya Mountain, Japan.



RELIEF MAP OF AFRICA.



forests merge into open grassy plains, where the rains are lighter,—falling when the equatorial rain belt moves over them. Beyond these grassy plains lie desert regions,—the Sahara in the north and the Kalahari in the south.



Entrance to Suez Canal.

3. Egypt and the Nile.

The highest plateau in Africa is that of Abyssinia. Its east slope, facing the Red sea, is steep, and is not broken by large river valleys. The west slope is more gentle, and is drained by branches of the Nile river.

The main river of the Nile system rises in the lake region of middle Africa, and is the only large river flowing northward to the Mediterranean sea. The basin of the Nile is thought to be about as large as that of the Mississippi.

For hundreds of miles this great river flows through the desert and does not receive a single tributary. There the river has cut a long and broad valley, and has made a flood plain several miles in width. Every summer, after the equatorial rains have fallen in the highland of Abyssinia, and in the lake region of middle Africa, the Nile overflows its flood plain, and deposits a thin coating of new soil. Most of this sediment is given by the Atbara to the Nile.

In the harvest time on the fertile delta and flood plains of the Nile may be seen cotton, sugar-cane, rice, wheat, corn and other products like those raised on the southern plains of North America. Cattle and sheep also graze in the pastures of the Nile valley.

The flood plains of the lower Nile form one of

the most thickly settled parts of the world. Most of the people belong to the white race, although their skin is very dark. Millions of Negroes dwell in the basin of the Upper Nile.

4. Northern Africa and the Sahara Desert.

The highland which includes the Atlas mountains consists of long and narrow plateaus with border ranges. These plateaus, like other high plains between ranges, receive but little rainfall, and are suitable only for pasture land.

The northern slopes of this highland receive rains from the westerly winds in winter. These slopes are fertile, and produce cereals and fruits like those of southern Europe. The slopes of the highland which face inland are almost barren, because they are on the lee side of the mountains.

Most of the people in the lands on the north of the Sahara desert have dark or swarthy skin, but they belong to the white race.

The desert of Sahara, though about as large as Canada, supports only about one-third as many people. Most of these live near the fertile places, or *oases*, where there are wells or natural springs. The desert tribes are mostly wandering Arabs, or *Bedouins*, and Berbers. Although their skin is swarthy they belong to the white race.

In the middle and eastern parts of the desert, the surface consists largely of stony table-lands. Some of these are a mile high. They are swept by hot dry winds which blow away the dust from their stony or gravelly surfaces.

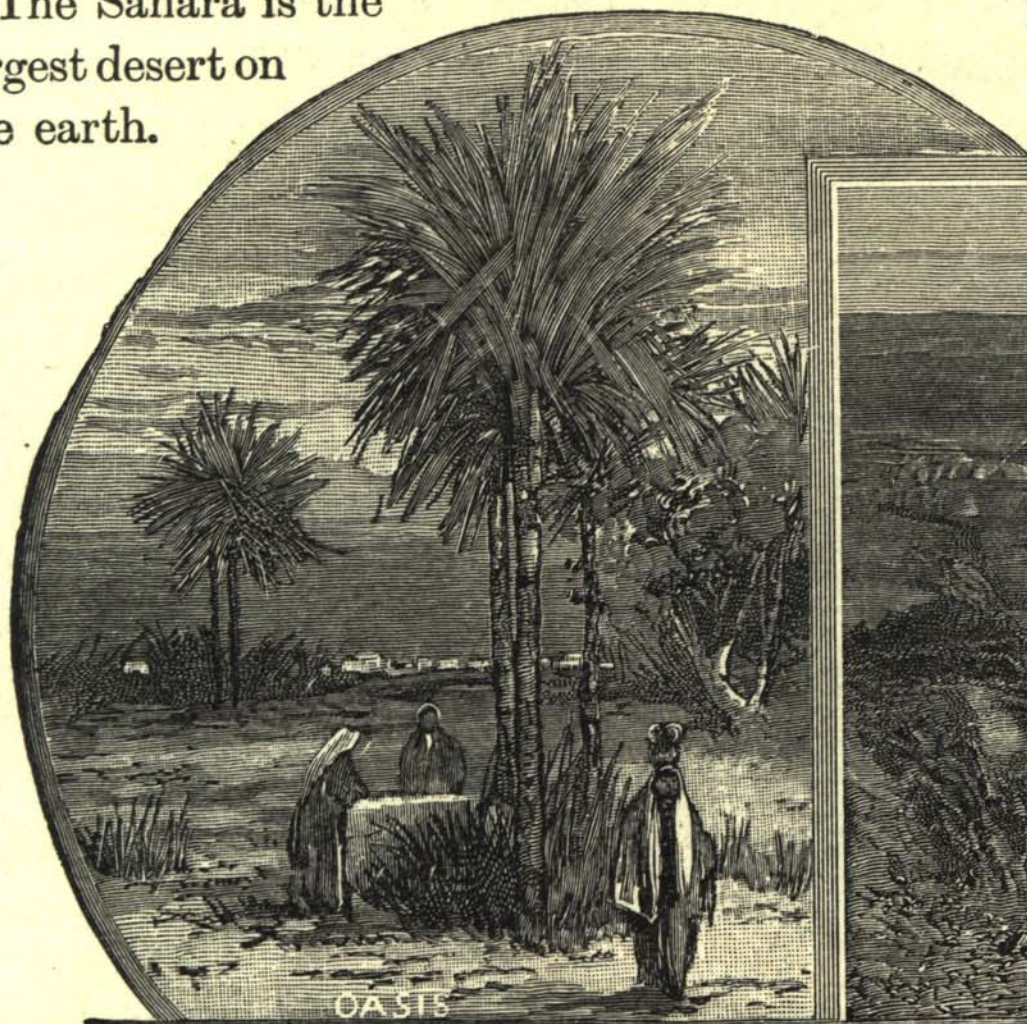
Near the desert mountains and table-lands are many springs around which date trees grow. Some grain also is raised there.



The western part of the desert of Sahara is mainly a great sandy region in which countless dunes form. Some of these are more than six hundred feet in height. Much less than half the great desert of Sahara is a sandy waste.

Violent winds, like the squalls of our thunder storms, but without rain or clouds, often raise great quantities of dust in the Sahara. These hot winds, called the *simoom*, sometimes darken the sky with dust. Caravans hardly survive the stifling heat and dust of the *simoom*. The camels crouch to the ground, and the men wrap their heads in their cloaks.

The Sahara is the largest desert on the earth.



Bedouin Camp in the Sahara Desert.

This desolate region is too far south to receive rains from the westerly winds, and too far north to be reached by the equatorial rain belt. Even along the Atlantic coast of the desert there is no rain.

The Sahara desert is part of a great belt of arid regions, whose rainfall is so light that they have no overflow to the sea. The desert belt crosses Arabia, Iran, the Middle Basin and the

Gobi region. A wide branch of this barren belt spreads northward around the Aral and Caspian seas.

5. Sudan.

A wide belt of country south of the Sahara desert is known as *Sudan*. It extends from the Atlantic coast to the highland of Abyssinia.

Sudan is wholly north of the equator, but is within the range of the equatorial rains. They are heaviest, however, in the southern part, and decrease towards the border of the Sahara desert. Southern Sudan, therefore, is



Rugged Land in the Sahara.

heavily forested, but northward the trees give place to open grassy plains, which still farther north merge into the desert. The greater

part of the country is fertile.

The greater part of central Sudan is in the basin of lake Chad,—the largest basin of interior drainage in Africa.

There are many large towns and villages in the park-like district south of Lake Chad, and the region is thickly settled. Most of the people are Negroes.

These people are well advanced in many respects beyond the savage state, for they carry on an extensive trade, and have some manufactures.

The towns near Lake Chad are trade centres where caravans meet. The ivory tusks of elephants form a leading article of export. Camels and horses in large numbers are reared for market. Grain and cotton are important products.



Algerian.

plateau a great flowing for the Sahara desert, the river turns southward and enters the sea through the largest delta in Africa.

The greater part of this delta is covered with forests and coarse grass. Small steamers from the sea can go a few hundred miles up the Niger, before their progress is stopped by rapids; but the steamers can ascend the Benue branch to a point about 600 miles from the river mouth. No other river in tropical Africa is navigable for so great a distance inland from the sea.

The coastal regions south and south-west of the Niger basin are reached by the equatorial rain, and most parts of them are forested. White people from Europe have many trading stations along this coast. The products are like those of the Niger basin.

6. The Congo Basin.

The Congo basin occupies the greater part of middle Africa and lies west and south-west

of the upper Nile basin. Almost all the Congo basin is a plateau with a general slope westward. The average height of the region is about half a mile above sea level.

The Congo basin is mainly in the southern portion of the equatorial rain belt, and parts are heavily wooded. This basin is thought to be the second largest in the world.

The Congo, like the Nile, rises in the lake region of middle Africa. One branch of the Congo is the outlet of Lake Tanganyika. Other branches flow from smaller lakes farther south.

The vegetation of the Congo basin is very luxuriant. Among the useful food plants are the cassava, the yam, the plantain, corn and sugar-cane. Palm oil and cotton are other important products.

The basin of the Congo is the home of many large and fierce animals. Among these are the chimpanzee, the crocodile and the rhinoceros. Every year thousands of elephants are killed for their tusks.

The natives of the Congo basin belong to the black race. Their number runs far into the millions. They live mostly in small towns and villages. Many of the huts of these black people are made of grass, woven into mats and fastened to poles.

White people have established many trading stations along the coast on the upper Congo and its tributaries. These traders purchase ivory, palm oil and other products.

Why has the Amazon about 25,000 miles of streams navigable from the ocean, and the Congo only about 90 miles?

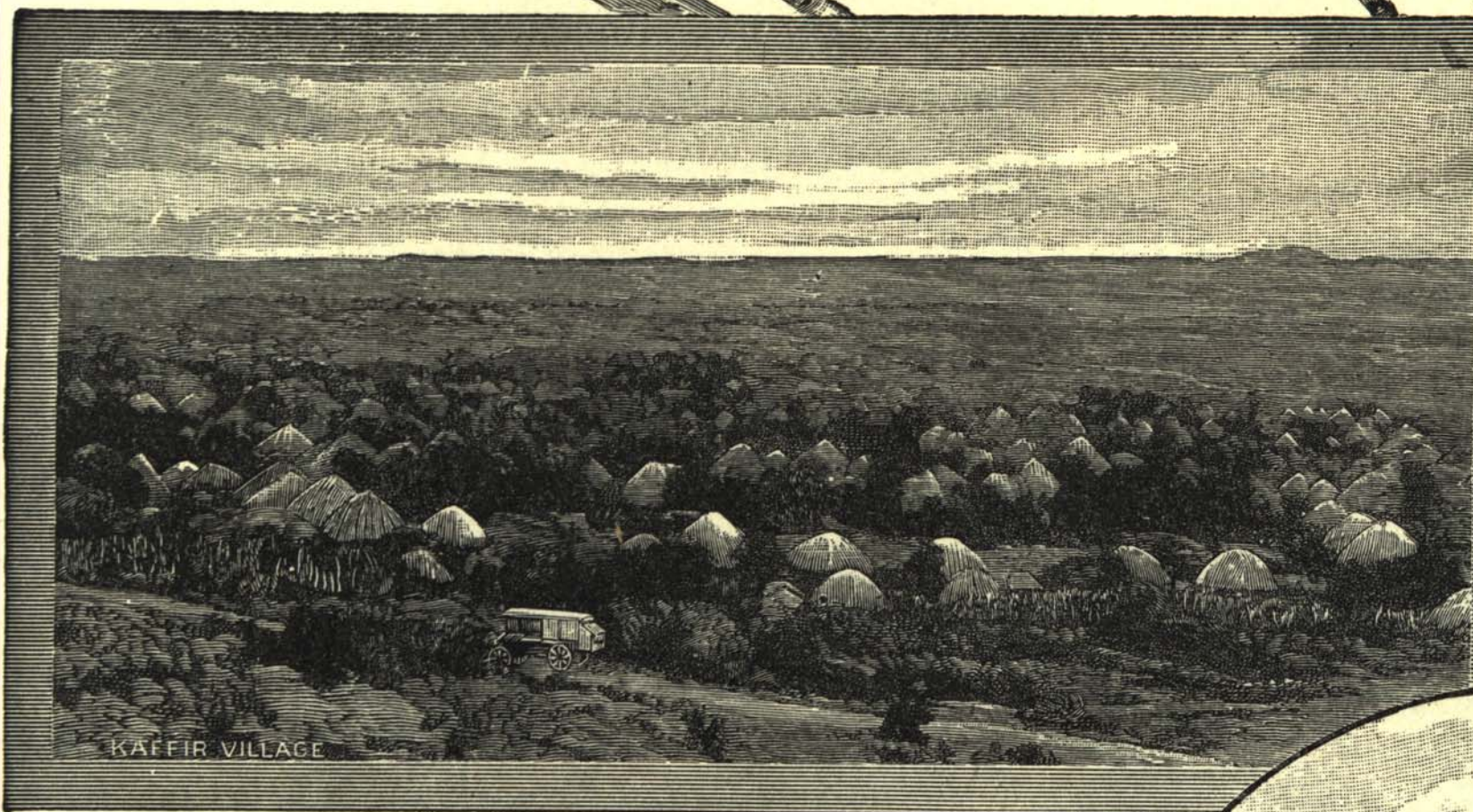


Bedouin.

7. Southern Africa.

In the Zambezi basin are found the same changes, from forest to grass land and then to desert, as in Sudan. The forests of the Zambezi basin are densest in the northern part, where the equatorial rains fall in summer. The southern part of the basin reaches the Kalahari desert.

The Zambezi is the largest African river flowing into the Indian ocean. This stream is thought to



drain an area equal to about two-thirds that of the Mississippi basin.

The Zambezi has built a large delta. The distributaries which cross it are generally barred with sand, but vessels that can float over the bars may ascend for about three hundred miles.

The natives of the Zambezi basin are savages of the black race. They raise grain and have herds of cattle.

The southern part of Africa, including nearly all the region south of the Orange river, and a small area north of that river, is known as *Cape Colony*. It is crossed from east to west by a rugged plateau that forms the southern end of the great African highland.

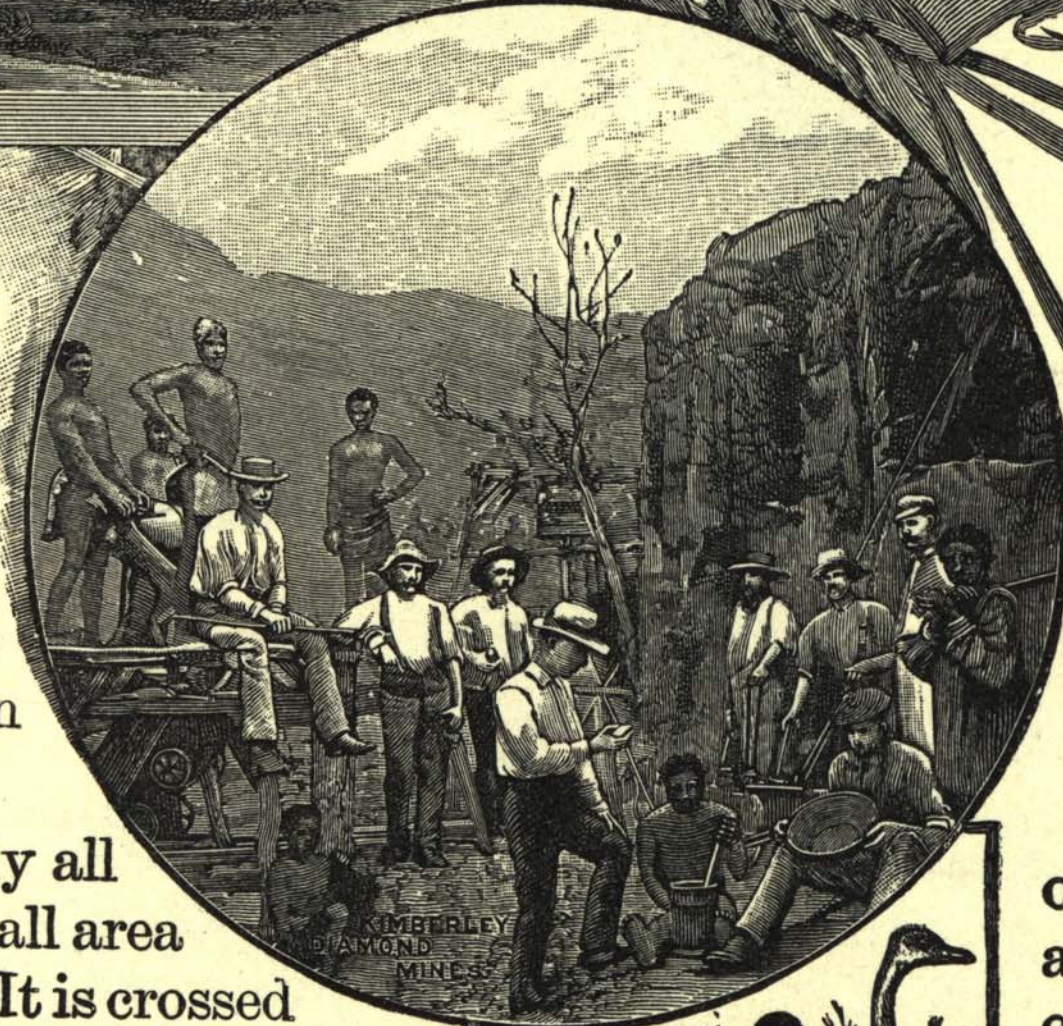
The seaward slopes of this plateau, like those of the Atlas highland, have winter rainfall and summer drought.

Wheat and other kinds of grain are raised on the seaward slopes of Cape Colony, and many cattle, sheep and ostriches are reared there. Wool, ostrich-feathers and hides are valuable exports.

The richest diamond mines in the world are at Kimberly. The value of the diamonds is greater than that of all the other exports of Cape Colony.

The native people of this country belong to the negro race, but white people from the British Isles control the land, and form about one-fourth of the population. Cape Town is the chief port in South Africa.

Madagascar, the largest island off the coast of South Africa, is about two and one-half times as large as Great Britain. Its coastal region is mostly low and unhealthy, but the interior consists largely



of grassy and wooded plateaus. The leading exports are cattle, hides, coffee, and Indian rubber.

8. Countries in Africa.

EGYPT.—This country is nominally part of the Ottoman Empire, though the Sultan of Turkey has very little control over the affairs of Egypt. The *Khedive*, or ruler, of Egypt resides in **Cairo**, the capital. This is one of the oldest cities in the world.

The principal exports of Egypt are cotton and cotton seed. The most valuable imports here, as in all other African countries, are various kinds of cloth. Great Britain controls the greater part of the foreign trade of Egypt.

Alexandria, in the Nile delta, is the largest seaport of this country.

TRIPOLI.—This portion of the Ottoman Empire is thinly settled. The capital is the only important city.

TUNIS AND ALGERIA.—These countries have been added to the possessions of

France. They form part of the French territory which now extends across the Sahara and Sudan.

The coastal districts of Tunis and Algeria have many fertile valleys that produce wheat. Olives grow here in abundance, and cattle and sheep find good grazing land. The cities of Tunis and Algiers export wheat, olive oil, wool and hides to France.

MOROCCO.—The products of this country are similar to those in Algeria.

Fez and Morocco are the principal cities of Morocco.

SIERRA LEONE.—This small colony belongs to

the British nation. **Freetown** exports palm oil.

LIBERIA.—This is a negro republic settled largely by freed slaves from the United States.

Monrovia, the capital, is named after a former president of the United States. The chief exports from Monrovia are coffee and palm oil.

CONGO STATE.—The King of Belgium is the ruler of the Congo State. **Boma** is the local capital.

The most valuable exports of the Congo State are coffee, rubber, ivory and palm oil.



Cairo, Egypt.

CAPE COLONY.—

Cape Colony is a large and valuable British possession. **Cape Town** is the chief city.

TRANSVAAL. The Transvaal gold mines are among the richest in the world. The native black people

are called *Kaffirs*. The early white settlers in this state were Dutch, here known as *Boers*. There are also many settlers from other white nations. **Pretoria** is the capital.

Johannesburg, the principal city near the gold region, has had very rapid growth.

European nations have seized nearly all parts of Africa. Italy is trying to control the territory in the region of the highland of Abyssinia; France not only claims large areas on the mainland, but is also seeking to control Madagascar; Great Britain, Germany and Portugal possess the greater portion of middle and southern Africa. Spain has a footing in the Sahara, and also directs the affairs of the Canary Islands.



Fiji Warrior.

several small ones, forming the group known as New Zealand.

The mountains of southern New Zealand, rivaling in height the Rocky mountains, receive heavy rainfall from the westerly winds. Great glaciers descend the slopes of the New Zealand mountains.

Many parts of these islands are forest-clad. Among the trees are lofty pines and large tree-ferns.

The natives of New Zealand belong to the brown race. Their number is small compared with that of the white people who have in recent years chosen those islands for their home.

Sheep-raising is the chief industry in New Zealand, although there were no sheep on the islands when the white man first settled there.

Dunedin is the chief port of the South island; Auckland, of the North island. Wellington is the capital.

Tasmania lies south of Australia. It was formerly called Van Dieman's Land, and was used by the British Government as a penal colony. Hobart is the capital. Agriculture, mining and whale fishing are leading occupations. There are large coal beds on the island.

Papua is the largest island in the world. It is about as large as Ontario and Manitoba combined. Except along some parts of the coast, Papua is in the possession of

black people who do very little to develop its resources, although the lowlands of the island are fertile.

Coral and Volcanic Islands.—Many of the low islands in the Pacific are of coral origin. Some are in the form of long bars, or *reefs*; others take the shape of rings, or *atolls*, inclosing lagoons. These coral deposits are constantly wasting away in the still water of the lagoons, and increasing outwards towards the open sea.

The higher islands far out in the Pacific are volcanoes. Many of these are still active, but others are extinct. Coral reefs, called *barrier reefs*, surround most of the lofty islands.

Polynesia.—Several groups of small islands lying eastward from Papua and Australia are included in the term



Coconut Tree.



Cocoanuts.

Polynesia. They are the Fiji, Friendly, Samoan, Society, Marquesas, Ellice, and Cook islands.

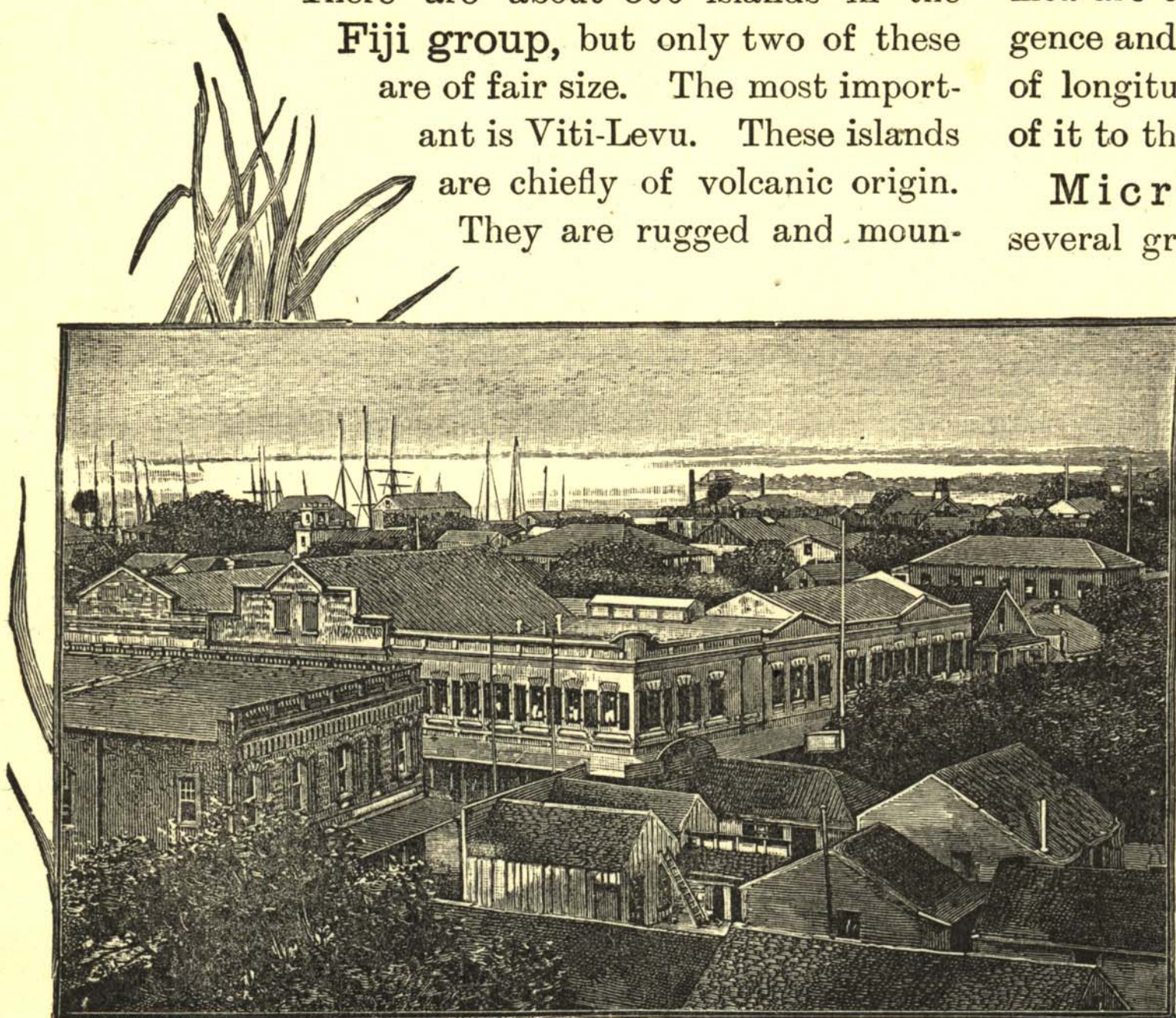
There are about 300 islands in the **Fiji group**, but only two of these are of fair size. The most important is Viti-Levu. These islands are chiefly of volcanic origin. They are rugged and moun-

tainous. *Suva* is the capital. It is on the south shore of Viti-Levu.

Micronesia.—North-eastward from Papua are several groups of islands which together take the name of Micronesia, meaning *small islands*. Among these groups, the Ladrone are mostly of volcanic origin; but the Caroline, Marshall and Gilbert islands are chiefly the work of coral polyps.

The savages who dwell in these islands may be grouped with the people of the brown race; but in language and customs, the Micronesians differ from the natives of the large islands of the East Indies.

The **Hawaiian** islands form part of the United States. They are near the tropic of Cancer, about 2,000 miles south-westward from San Francisco. These islands were built up by volcanic action, from the deep bottom of the middle Pacific. They form the most important group among the many islands which rise far out in that ocean. The lowlands of the islands are fertile. Among the products are sugar-cane and rice. Hawaii is the largest of the group of eight islands. Honolulu, the chief city, is on the island of Oahu.



Honolulu, Hawaiian Islands.

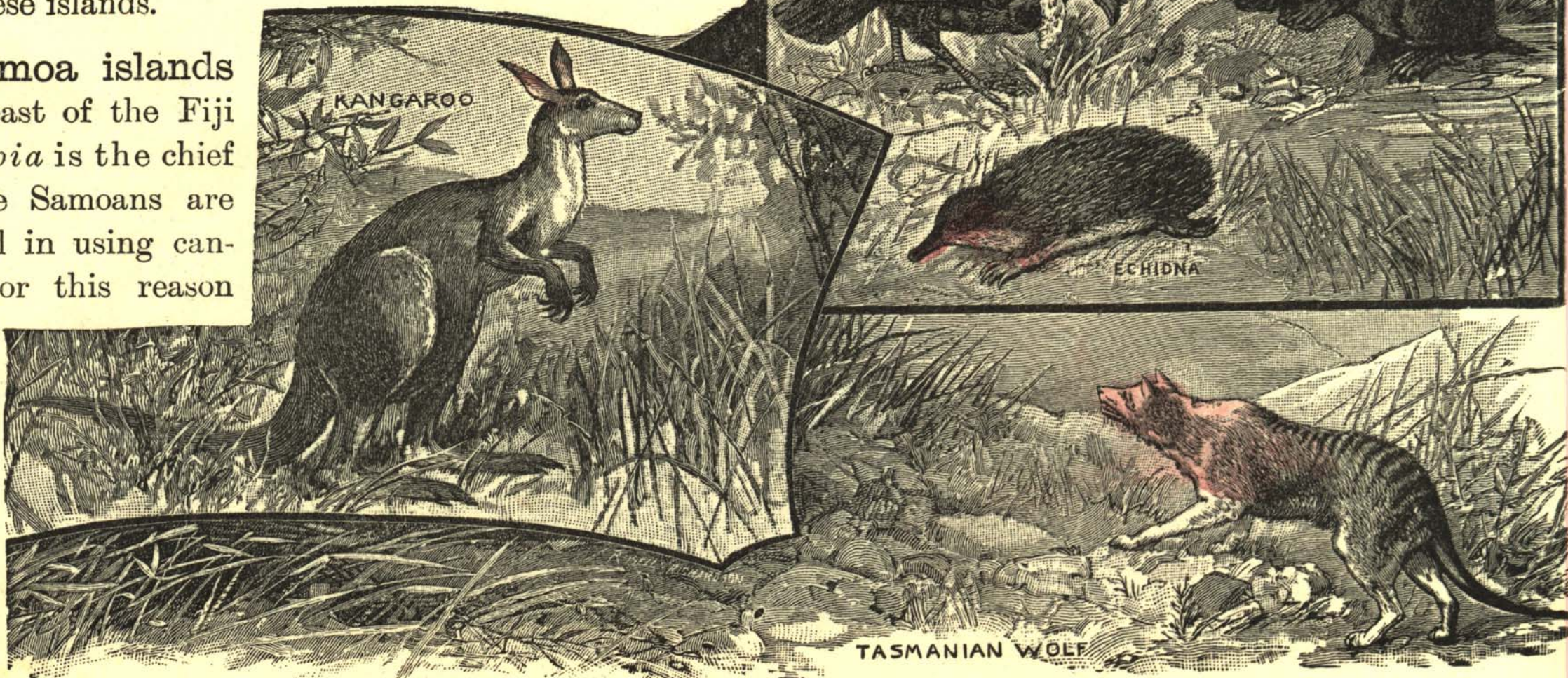
tainous. *Suva* is the capital. It is on the south shore of Viti-Levu.

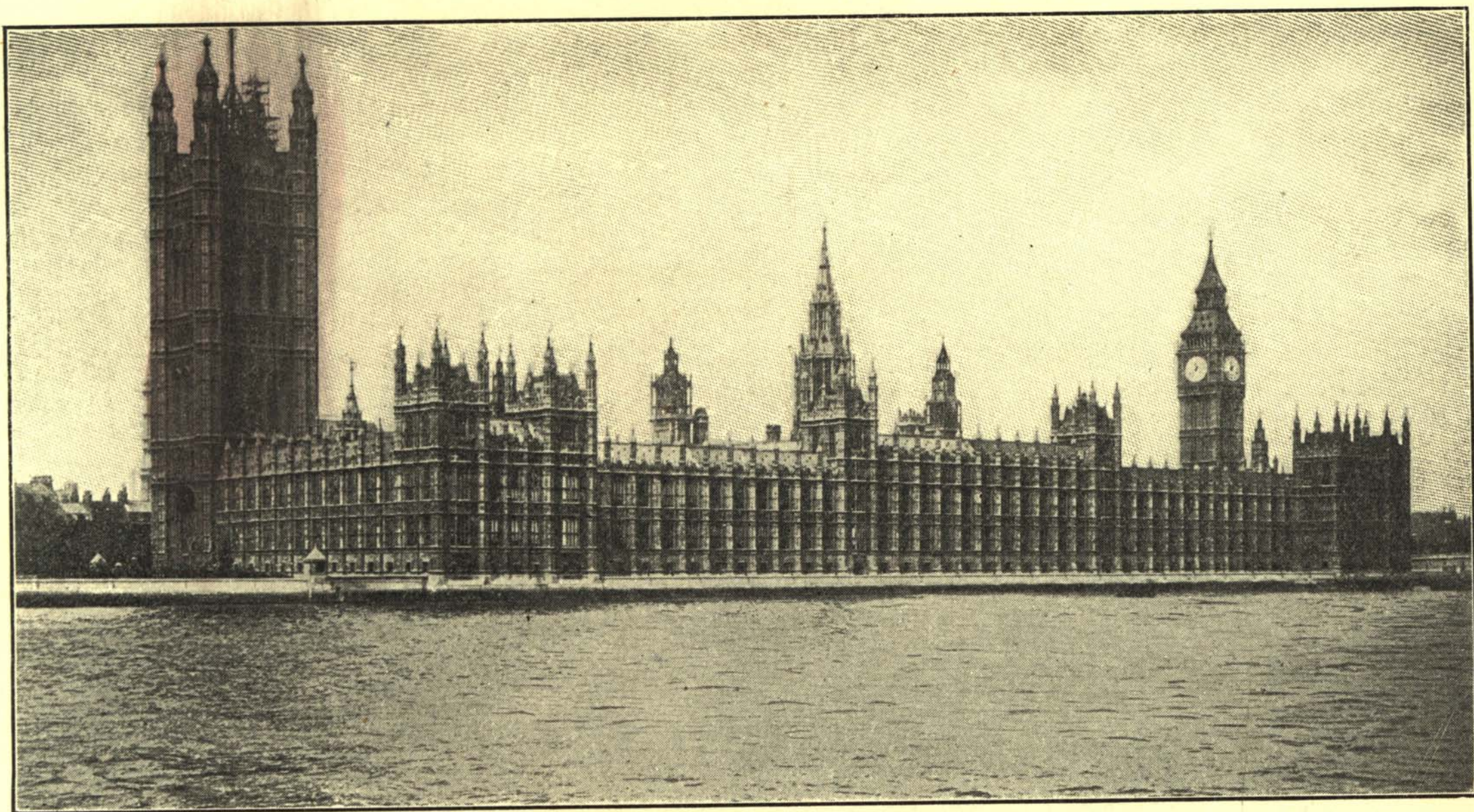
The Fijians have strong and well-built bodies, as shown in the picture on page 203. As a race they are fierce and warlike.

South-east of the Fiji group are the **Friendly islands**, of which Tonga is the largest. Since white people first went to these islands to teach the natives, most of them have learned to read. Christianity prevails on these islands.

The **Samoa** islands are north-east of the Fiji group. *Apia* is the chief town. The Samoans are very skilful in using canoes, and for this reason their islands are often called the *Navigator's islands*.

The people of Sa-





Houses of Parliament, London, England.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

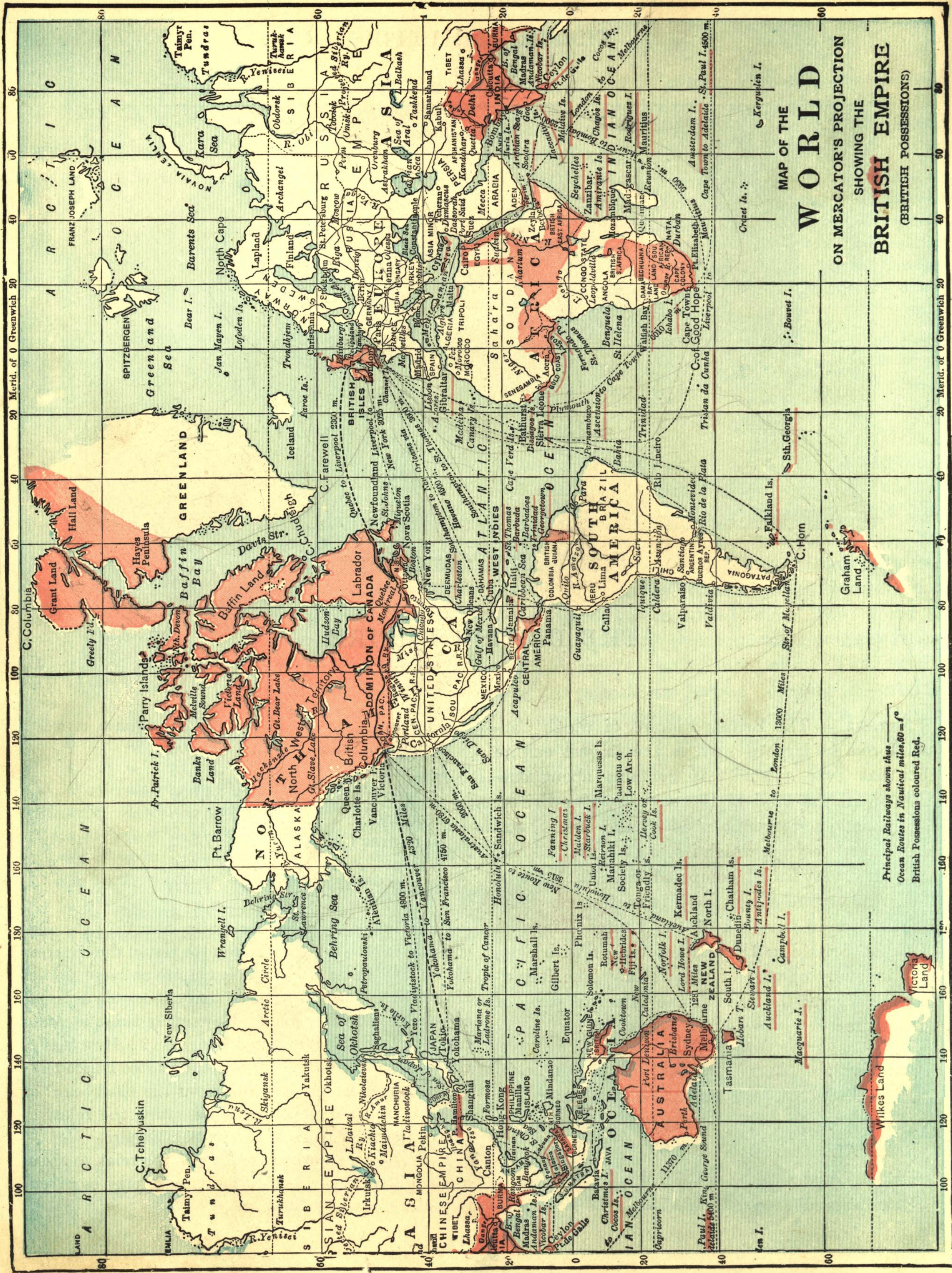
Extent. — The British Empire, of which Canada forms so large a part, is the largest empire that has ever existed. It contains about one-fifth of all the land in the world. The British Islands, which form the head of the empire and are the source from which its chief power comes, are really very small compared with the rest of the great empire which they have formed. The British Empire consists of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, together with colonies in every quarter of the world. The following table gives the area of the principal parts of the empire:

Canada	3,729,665 square miles.
Australia	2,972,573 “ “
India	1,776,642 “ “
South Africa	276,000 “ “
British Guiana	104,000 “ “
New Zealand	104,751 “ “

England	50,222 square miles.
Newfoundland	42,200 “ “
Ireland	32,535 “ “
Borneo (part)	34,000 “ “
Scotland	29,820 “ “
Honduras (part)	7,562 “ “
Wales	7,446 “ “
Jamaica	4,193 “ “

QUESTIONS: Omitting Australia, how does Canada compare in size with the whole of the rest of the empire? How many times is the whole empire as large as the United Kingdom? How many times is Canada as large as the United Kingdom? How many times is Australia as large as the United Kingdom? How many times is British India as large as the United Kingdom? With Canada as the base, draw on the blackboard a series of squares in colors, representing the relative size of the chief parts of the British Empire.

NOTE. — An approximate idea of the relative sizes of the different portions of the empire may be given to junior classes by lines.



MAP OF THE
WORLD
ON MERCATOR'S PROJECTION
SHOWING THE
BRITISH EMPIRE
(BRITISH POSSESSIONS)

Principal Railways shown thus
Ocean Routes in Nautical miles, 60 = 1°
British Possessions coloured Red.

Population.—The population of the British Empire is a little more than one-fifth of all the people in the world.

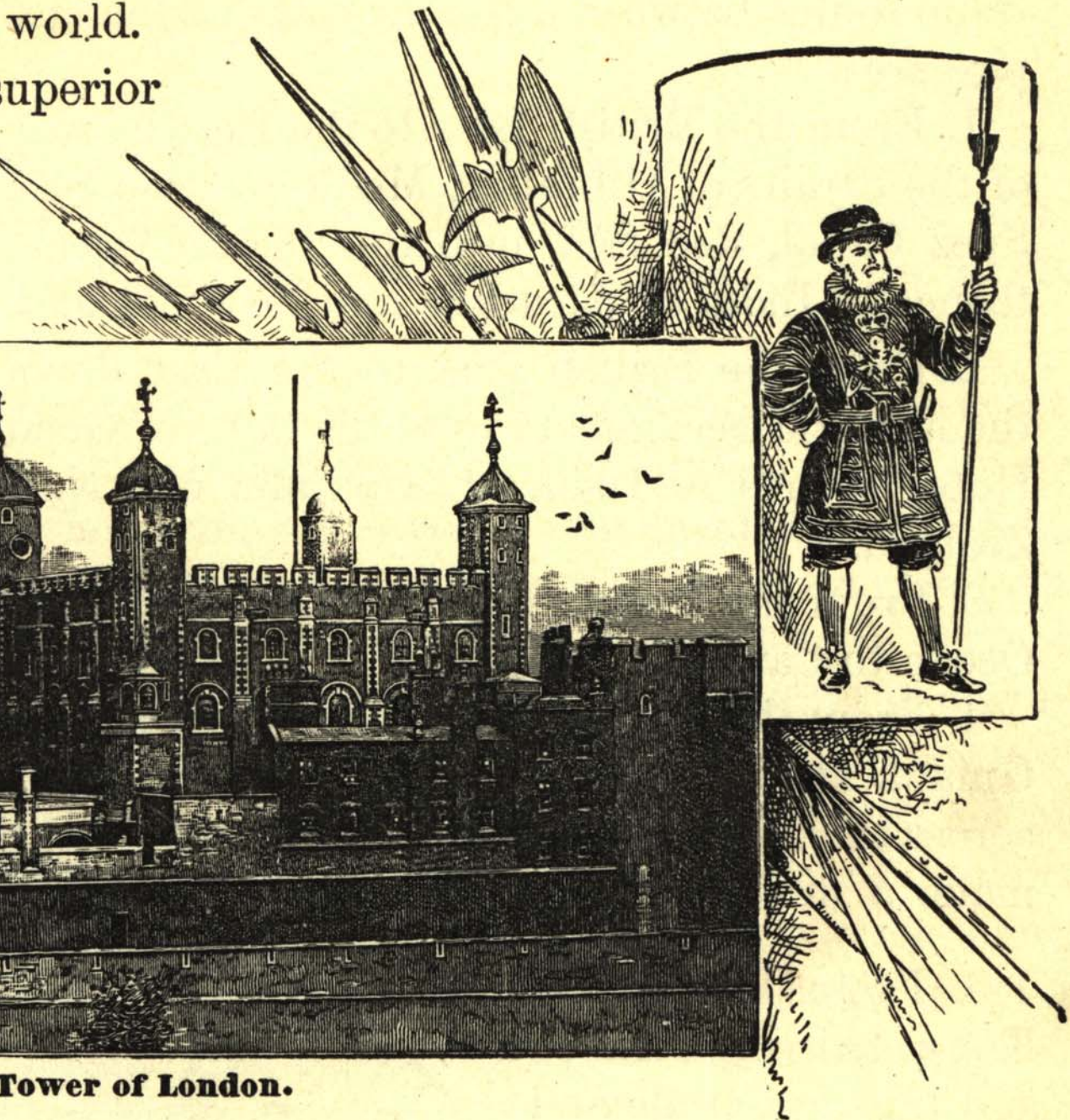
Commerce.—The British Empire is vastly superior to any other empire in the extent of her commerce. The total number of merchant vessels belonging to the British Empire, in 1902, was 35,781. The tonnage was 11,566,745 tons net.

The British Empire has been appropriately called "The Ocean Empire." Dr. G. R. Parkin says "All the great oceans wash its shores. Water, more than land, forms its boundaries, and the sea is the chief means of connection between its different

parts. The ocean trade of its people is greater than that of any nation of present or past times. British ships not only carry British commerce, but also a large part of the merchandise exchanged between other countries."

The ocean really does not keep the different parts of the empire apart as in former times. So far as trade is concerned it brings the empire into closer

unity. Wheat or cattle or apples can be carried from Montreal to England as cheaply as from one end of England to the other. The same is true of the cost of bringing wool from Australia. The cost of taking a bale of wool from

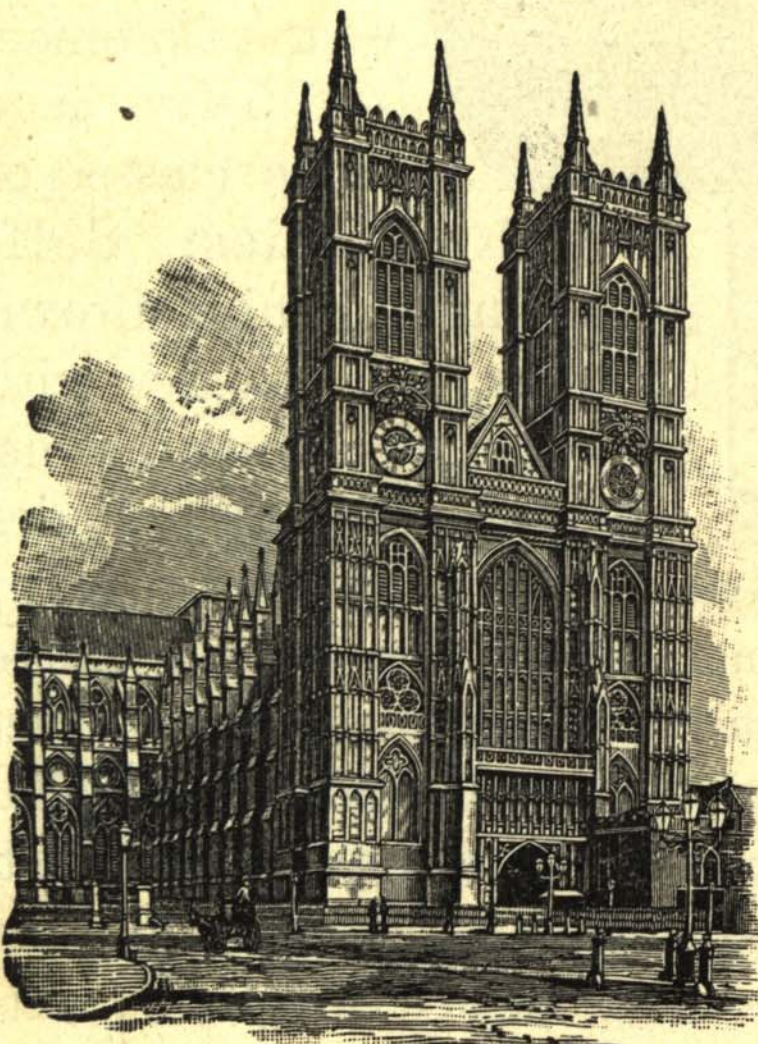


Tower of London.

Australia to London is about the same as from London to Leeds. The great manufacturers of iron in England pay as much to send their goods to Liverpool as it costs to send them from Liverpool to the colonies.

The different parts of the empire are connected, not only by swift steamships, but by telegraph lines, so that events occurring in any part of the empire may be known in a few minutes in all the other parts. Of 125,000 miles of ocean cables the British Empire owns about 90,000 miles.

Canada's place in the Empire.—If we examine the map of the British Empire, we may note three important facts: Canada is the largest part of the empire; it is nearer the "mother land" than any other large part of the empire; and it lies about in the centre of the empire, between the British Isles and India and Australia. The quickest route from England to India or Australia is by steamship from England to Canada, by rail across Canada, and by steamer from Vancouver. These facts make Canada a very important part of the empire.



Westminster Abbey.

Trade Routes of the Empire.—The leading trade routes between different parts of the empire are :

1. From the British Isles to the East by way of the Straits of Gibraltar, Mediterranean Sea, Suez Canal, Red Sea, into the Indian Ocean, thence to India or Australia and New Zealand.
2. From the British Isles to the East down the Atlantic Ocean and round the Cape of Good Hope, thence to India or Australia and New Zealand.
3. From the British Isles across the Atlantic Ocean to Canada.
4. From the British Isles to the West Indies, Guiana and Honduras. When a canal is cut across the Isthmus of Panama this will make a new route to Australia.
5. From Canada to Hong-Kong, taking Chinese and Japanese trade and connecting with India.
6. From Canada across the Pacific Ocean to New Zealand and Australia. This route with the Canadian Pacific Railway and the route to England from Canada makes the most rapid route from England to the East.
7. From Canada to the West Indies.

These routes are defended by the best fortresses and supplied with many of the finest harbors in the world.

EXERCISE : Draw a map of the world and mark the position of the following fortresses and harbors belonging to the British Empire : Gibraltar, Malta, Perim Aden, Bombay, Colombo, Trincomalee, Singapore, Hong-Kong, Sierra-Leone, Ascension, St. Helena, Table Bay, Simon's Bay, Mauritius, Melbourne, Sydney, Brisbane, Port Darwin, Hobart, Auckland, Wellington, Lyttle-

ton, Dunedin, Quebec, Halifax, Bermuda, Kingston and Esquimalt.

Great docks for the repairing of ships have been constructed at Gibraltar, Malta, Bombay, Hong-Kong, Sydney, Auckland, Lyttleton, Halifax, Esquimalt and Bermuda.

For the purposes of commerce or defence coal is of great importance. The British Empire keeps abundant supplies of coal for coaling her merchant vessels and her great battleships in the harbors named and in other convenient places along the great trade routes of the world.

A great deal of this coal comes from Great Britain, but there are inexhaustible supplies for this purpose in Nova Scotia and British

Columbia,
New Zealand,
Australia,

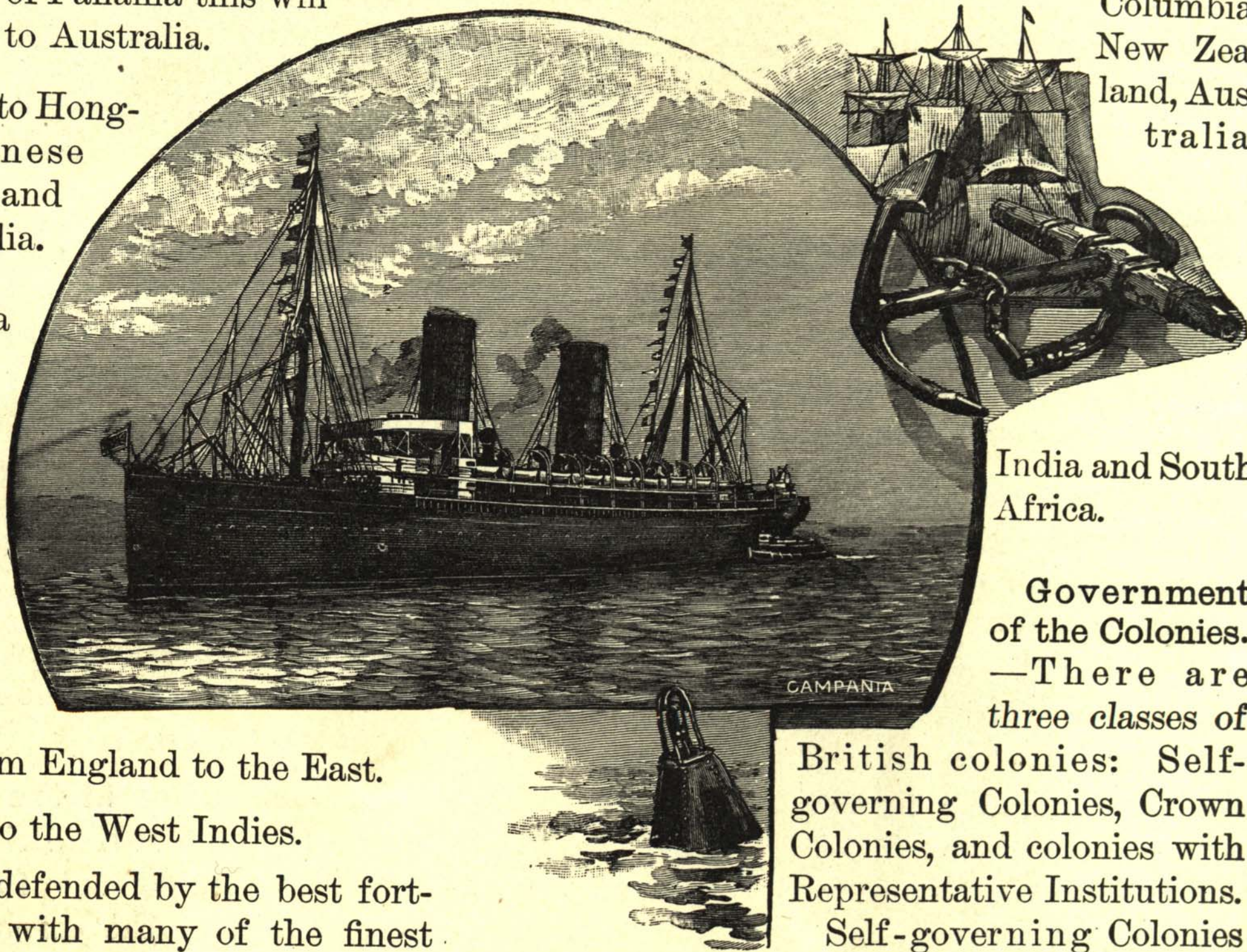
India and South
Africa.

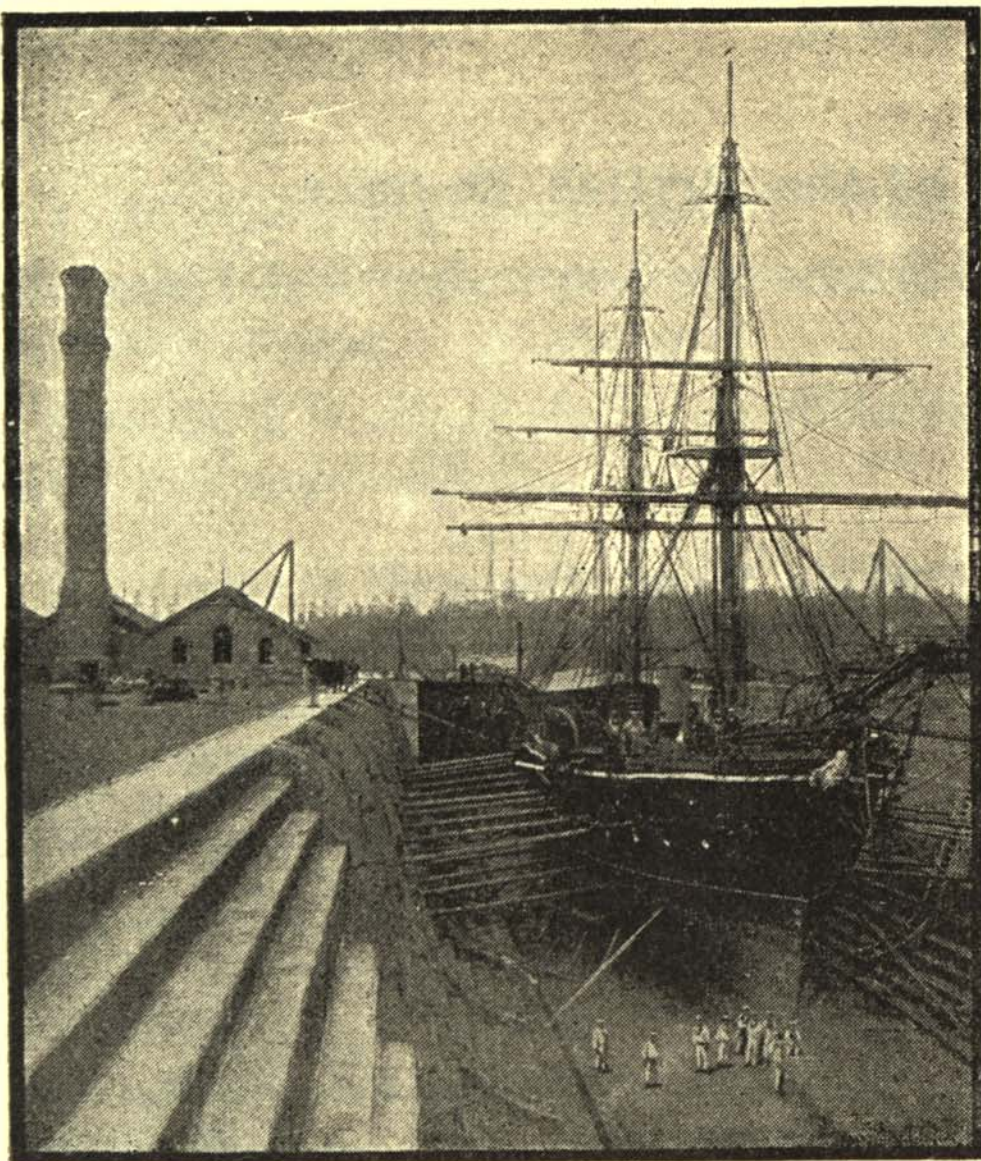
**Government
of the Colonies.**
—There are
three classes of

British colonies: Self-governing Colonies, Crown Colonies, and colonies with Representative Institutions.

Self-governing Colonies elect the members of their parliaments or legislatures to make their own laws, arrange their own taxes and customs rates, and conduct their own public works. Canada, Australia, Tasmania, Newfoundland, and parts of South Africa belong to this class of colonies.

Crown Colonies are governed directly by officers appointed by the British Government.





Esquimalt Dry Docks.

India, Hong-Kong, Gibraltar and Sierra Leone are Crown Colonies.

In the third class of colonies, the government is a kind of unity of the plans adopted in the other two. The parliaments that make the laws in these colonies are partly elected by the people of the colonies and partly appointed by the British Government. Jamaica and most of the West Indies, Malta and Guiana are colonies with Representative Institutions. In all British colonies the ruler of the empire is represented by a Governor appointed by the British Government.

The Self-governing Colonies are represented in London by agents appointed by the governments of the respective colonies. The representative of Canada is called "The High Commissioner for the Dominion of Canada."

British Strongholds.—British statesmen have shown wisdom in securing control of the leading strategic points of the world:

GIBRALTAR, at the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea, is the strongest fortress in the world.

MALTA, near the centre of the Mediterranean, controls the commerce of that great sea.

ADEN controls the mouth of the Red Sea, as Gibraltar guards the entrance to the Mediterranean. Both are practically impregnable. By these forts Britain controls the trade of the Indies, which is of very great importance.

Importance of the British Empire.—Lord Roseberry has said:—"A collection of states spread over every region of the earth, but owning one head and one flag, is even more important as an influence than as an Empire. From either point of view it is a world-wide fact of supreme significance; but in the one capacity it affects only its own subjects, and in the other all mankind. With the Empire statesmen are mainly concerned; in the influence every individual can and must have a part. Influence is based on character, and it is on the character of each child that grows into manhood within British limits that the future of our Empire rests."

"If we and they are narrow and selfish, averse to labor, impatient of necessary burdens, factious and self-indulgent; if we see in public affairs not our Empire, but our country, not our country but our parish, and in our parish our house, the Empire is doomed. For its maintenance requires work, and sacrifice, and intelligence. The time cannot be far remote when the British Empire must, if it remain united, by the growth of its population and its ubiquitous dominion, exercise a controlling authority in the world. To that trust our sons are born."



Jaunting Car, Ireland.

Colonies, Protectorates, and Dependencies of the British Empire.

CONTINENT.	POSSESSION.	HOW GOVERNED.	CONTINENT.	POSSESSION.	HOW GOVERNED.
I. Europe.....	GIBRALTAR... ..	<i>Crown Colony.</i>		UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA: CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, NATAL, ORANGE FREE STATE, AND TRANSVAAL.....	<i>Responsible Government.</i>
	MALTA.....	<i>Representative Institutions.</i>		ZANZIBAR PROTECTORATE.	<i>Protectorate.</i>
II. Asia.....	ADEN.....	<i>Protectorate of Bombay.</i>	IV. America.....	ZULULAND.....	<i>Dependency of Natal</i>
	ANDAMAN AND NICOBAR ISLANDS.	<i>Dependency of Bengal.</i>		BAHAMAS.....	<i>Representative Institutions.</i>
	BAHREIN ISLANDS..	<i>Protectorate.</i>		BARBADOES.....	<i>Representative Institutions.</i>
	BALUCHISTAN.....	<i>Dependent State.</i>		BERMUDAS.....	<i>Representative Institutions.</i>
	NORTH BORNEO...	<i>Protectorate.</i>		BRITISH HONDURAS.	<i>Crown Colony.</i>
	BRUNEI.....	<i>Protectorate.</i>		CANADA.....	<i>Responsible Government.</i>
	CEYLON.....	<i>Crown Colony.</i>		FALKLAND ISLANDS.	<i>Crown Colony.</i>
	CYPRUS.....	<i>Protectorate.</i>		GUIANA.....	<i>Representative Institutions.</i>
	HONG KONG.....	<i>Crown Colony.</i>		JAMAICA.....	<i>Representative Institutions.</i>
	INDIA.....	<i>Crown Colony.</i>		LEEWARD ISLANDS..	<i>Representative Institutions.</i>
	KURIA MURA ISLANDS.	<i>Dependency of Aden.</i>		NEWFOUNDLAND...	<i>Responsible Government.</i>
	LABUAN.....	<i>Crown Colony.</i>		TOBAGO.....	<i>Dependency of Trinidad.</i>
	LACCADIVE ISLANDS.	<i>Dependency of Madras.</i>		TRINIDAD.....	<i>Crown Colony.</i>
	PERIM.....	<i>Dependency of Aden.</i>		TURKS AND CAICOS ISLANDS.	<i>Dependency of Jamaica</i>
	SARAWAK.....	<i>Protectorate.</i>		WINDWARD ISLANDS	<i>Representative Institutions.</i>
	SIKKEM.....	<i>Dependent State.</i>	V. Australasia and Oceania....	COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA, CONSISTING OF NEW SOUTH WALES, VICTORIA, QUEENSLAND, SOUTH AUSTRALIA, WESTERN AUSTRALIA, AND TASMANIA.....	<i>Responsible Government.</i>
	THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES.	<i>Protectorate.</i>		FIJI.....	<i>Crown Colony.</i>
	THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.	<i>Crown Colony.</i>		NEW GUINEA, BRITISH.	<i>Dependency of Commonwealth.</i>
	WEI-HAI-WEI.....	<i>Crown Colony.— Leased from China.</i>		NEW ZEALAND.....	<i>Responsible Government.</i>
III. Africa.....	ASCENSION ISLAND.	<i>Controlled by Admiralty.</i>		SOUTHERN SOLOMON ISLANDS.....	<i>Protectorate.</i>
	BASUTOLAND.....	<i>Crown Colony.</i>		NEW HEBRIDES....	<i>Protectorate.</i>
	BECHUANALAND....	<i>Annexed to Cape Colony.</i>		TONGA OR FRIENDLY ISLANDS.....	<i>Protectorate.</i>
	BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE.	<i>Protectorate.</i>		COOK ISLANDS.....	<i>Annexed to New Zealand.</i>
	BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA.	<i>Protectorate.</i>			
	BRITISH EAST AFRICA.	<i>Protectorate.</i>			
	EGYPT.....	<i>Protectorate.</i>			
	GAMBIA.....	<i>Crown Colony.</i>			
	GOLD COAST COLONY	<i>Crown Colony.</i>			
	LAGOS TERRITORY..	<i>Crown Colony.</i>			
	MAURITIUS.....	<i>Representative Institutions.</i>			
	NIGERIA.....	<i>Protectorate.</i>			
	RHODESIA.....	<i>Representative Institutions.</i>			
	SEYCHELLES.....	<i>Crown Colony.</i>			
	SOKOTRA.....	<i>Dependency of Aden.</i>			
	SOMALILAND.....	<i>Protectorate.</i>			
	ST. HELENA.....	<i>Crown Colony.</i>			
	SIERRA LEONE.....	<i>Crown Colony.</i>			
	UGANDA PROTECTORATE.	<i>Protectorate.</i>			

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Of what does geography treat? What is the shape of the earth? Give as many reasons as you can for your answer.

How far is it around the centre of the earth? How far is it through the centre?

2. Of what is the greater part of the earth composed? How high are the highest mountains? How deep are the deepest parts of the sea? What is the general character of the bottom of the sea?

3. Is there more land north or south of the equator? Is there more land or more water on the surface of the earth? Describe the world ridge or primary highland. On which side of the primary highland are the longer land slopes? What is the general shape of the world ridge? Why are there no long rivers on the outside of the world ridge?

4. Name the four large bodies of land of which the world ridge forms the backbone. Name the six continents or grand divisions. Which continent lies wholly south of the equator? What strait cuts the world ridge in two? Draw an outline of the world ridge.

5. How much of the earth's surface is covered with water? How much with land? What continents are washed by the Arctic Ocean? By the Antarctic Ocean? By the Pacific Ocean? By the Atlantic Ocean? By the Indian Ocean?

6. What changes take place in the height of the water along the shores of the great oceans twice each day? What are tides? Describe an island, a peninsula, a cape, an isthmus, a strait, a sound, a channel, a bay, a gulf, a sea. Make the land forms with sand, or draw them on your books or slates. Make or draw the water forms.

7. What are mountains? How are they generally formed? Draw the shapes of different kinds of mountains, or make them with rock and sand? What is a mountain range? What is a mountain system? What two changes take place in the air as we ascend high mountains? Why is it hard to breathe on high mountains? Is it easier or more difficult to run as we go higher up? Why? Why is the air heavier at the foot of the mountain than at its top? What is an avalanche?

8. What is lava? In what two forms does lava usually cool? How are volcanoes formed? How many

acres are covered by a lava flow in India? Where are most volcanoes found? Near what ocean are most volcanoes found? How are volcanic islands formed?

9. What are valleys? Describe as many kinds of valleys as you can. What is a gorge or canon? What is a glacier? What is usually found at the bottom of a valley?

10. What is meant by surface water? By ground water? What is a spring? Where are springs usually found? Are all springs on land? Why is ground water usually clear? Why do springs sometimes dry up? Why do rivers often have floods in the spring time? How were the great plains of Florida, Georgia, North and South Carolina formed? What change in the bed of the ocean is still taking place east of these States?

11. How does a river grow larger as it goes towards the sea? Why are large cities often built near rivers? What is the source or head of a river? What is the mouth of a river? How are water-falls caused? What is a cataract? A cascade?

12. What is a river basin? What is a river system? What is the effect of a river on the land over which it flows? What is a divide? What is the largest river in the world? What is the largest river in North America? Compare the size of the basins of the largest rivers in North America and in South America.

13. What are flood plains? What is silt? How is silt deposited? Why are flood plains fertile? Do many people live on flood plains? Why? What are deltas? How are they formed? What kind of soil is usually found on deltas? What do deltas become when they are old? Where is the largest delta plain in the world? Why are some cities that were once on the sea shore now far inland? Describe as many ways of forming plains as you can. How was the great Canadian plain formed? What are high plains called? Why do most of the people in the world live on plains?

14. What effect have weather changes on rocks exposed to air? What is land waste? How is it formed? How is soil formed from rock waste? In what countries do rocks weather most slowly? Why did Cleopatra's needle begin to crumble rapidly when it was brought to New York?

15. How does rock waste reach the valleys? What is an alluvial fan?

16. How are winds caused? Why are winds so important in deciding what parts of the earth are most fertile? What are trade winds? How are they caused? In what direction do they blow north of the equator? South of the equator? In what direction do the winds north and south of the trade winds generally blow? What is the effect of the westerly winds on the climate of the continents over which they blow? To what does Western Canada owe its mild climate? To what Western Europe? Do the Rocky Mountains make Canada warmer or colder by stopping the progress of the westerly winds from the Pacific Ocean? What other names are given to the westerly winds? Where does rain come from? Why does vapor form into rain? What are clouds? What carries the clouds across the land? Why do the trade winds give out little moisture? Why do mountain ranges have more rain on one side than on the other? On which side do they receive the larger rainfall? How are deserts formed? How might they be made fertile? Why is there so much rain in Ireland? In the western part of British Columbia?

17. What effect have strong winds on soil not covered with grass or trees? What are sand hills called? How were the "sand banks" of Prince Edward County formed? What are whirlwinds? How are waterspouts formed? What effect has wind on the ocean? What effect has wind on the air? What other advantages have winds in making the earth fit for man to live on? In what part of the earth are waterspouts most common?

18. What is a glacier? How are glaciers formed? What is a moraine? Why are there so many lakes in Canada and so few in the United States? Why are there so many boulders in Canada and so few in the United States? Why are there no boulders in the Southern States? What is a drumlin? How are icebergs formed?

19. How are ocean currents formed? Why do not currents move in direct lines around the earth? Where are the Atlantic and Pacific eddies? In what direction do the ocean eddies north of the equator turn? In what direction do those south of the equator turn? In what direction does the Antarctic eddy flow? What causes the Gulf stream? Trace its course. What is its influence on the British Isles and Norway? What current flows southward along the north-east coast of North America? What effect has this current on Labrador and Newfoundland?

20. What causes the tides? In what places do tides rise highest? Is the tide high in mid-ocean? Why is it higher at the shore? In what parts of the earth are there high tides at the same time? What are the high-

est tides called? The smallest tides? When are the highest tides formed? When the lowest? What is meant by flood tide? What by ebb tide?

21. What is the Solar system? How many motions has the earth? How long does it take the earth to go around the sun? What is the earth's orbit? What is the shape of the earth's orbit? What is perihelion? What is aphelion? How do we know that the earth moves around the sun? What is the diurnal motion of the earth? What is the result of the diurnal motion of the earth? How could day and night be caused, if the earth did not revolve on its axis?

22. What is the result of the annual motion of the earth? Could the earth go around the sun without causing a change of seasons? How is the earth's axis inclined? How often is the sun vertical over the equator each year? On what dates? When is the sun directly over the tropic of Cancer? Over the tropic of Capricorn? What are the conditions necessary to cause the change of seasons?

23. How many zones are there? Name them. Where are they located? In what zone do most civilized people live? State as many conditions as you can that influence climate.

24. How many times is the sun as large as the earth? How would the absence of clouds or dust from the air affect the temperature? Where is the hot belt? Where are the cold belts? Where are the cool belts? Where are the warm belts? Why have the sun's rays more influence at the equator than near the poles?

25. What is meant by latitude? By longitude? Why are latitude and longitude necessary? What are meridians? Where is the equator? What are the poles? Where is the first meridian? Why is this meridian chosen by English geographers? What is the highest longitude possible? The highest latitude? Why have not all places the same time? Why is there a difference between sun time and standard time in most places?

27. Is the moon a light or a dark body? Where does its light come from? When do we have new moon? When do we have full moon? How many times does the moon go around the earth in a year? Why does the moon rise later each day?

Plants.

Are all the grains and fruits grown in Canada native to the country?

What are the most important trees that grow in the hot belt? Which is the most useful of these trees?

State as many products of these trees as you can. What uses are made of bamboo? What are the chief articles of food in the hot belt? What are the chief imports from the hot belt to Canada?

What is the chief distinction between the trees of the warm belt and those of the cool belt? What are the great cotton producing countries of the world? Name the leading fruits of the warm belt. Where does most of the tea used in our country come from? What belt produces most sugar?

What is the most distinctive product of the cool belts of the world? Which is the most useful grain? Which grain grows in the widest range of temperature? In what belt does most timber grow? What trees grow farthest into the cold belts, and highest on mountain ranges?

NOTE.—One of the best maps in a schoolroom may be made by making a circle and dividing it into the belts of different temperatures, and pasting or drawing on it the characteristic plant products of each belt.

Animals.

Give some illustration of the adaptability of animals to their native homes. Give some illustrations to show how animals are constructed to suit their modes of living. Name as many animals as you can that are now common in America which were not natives of America. Which have a wider range of temperature adaptation—plants or animals?

Name the leading animals of the South American realm. Which are the most useful of these? Which is the largest bird that flies? What very large bird of South America does not fly?

What are the general characteristics of the animals of the northern realm? What are the most useful product of animals in the northern realm? Where is the moose found? The reindeer? The walrus? The seal? The chamois? Of what use is each of these animals?

Name the leading animals of the African realm. What are the two largest kinds of monkeys called? Which is most like man? What is the largest bird in Africa? What is the largest quadruped? What is the fiercest animal?

What are the two most useful animals of the Oriental realm? Of what use are elephants in India?

Which realm has the strangest animals? What is the chief difference between kangaroos and other animals? Are there many species of animals called kangaroos?

What are the most useful domestic animals in Australia? What countries produce most wool? Name some strange birds of Australia.

NOTE.—A very interesting and useful map may be made by outlining the continents on stretched canvas or on a large sheet of manilla paper, and pasting on or drawing the animals that live in the different continents. Pupils may make enlarged pictures from those given in this book. Each pupil may make a smaller animal map for himself.

The best way to learn the production of a continent is to draw or fasten on a map the chief products of each country in it.

The Bottom of the Sea.

Describe the bottom of the sea. Are there any mountain ranges under the sea? What do the tops of the peaks form? Are there any volcanoes under the sea? What do they form when they reach the surface? How far down in the ocean does light penetrate? What is the greatest depth of the ocean? How do coral islands grow?

Races of Men.

How many races of men are there? In what respects do they differ? Where are the red men found? The black men? The yellow men? The brown men? The white men? How many people are there in the world?

Which race includes nearly one-half of the people of the world? Which race includes more than one-third the people of the world? What portion of the people of the world belong to the Black race? To the Brown race? To the Red race?

What are pagans? To what races do the pagans belong? About how many pagans are there in the world? What is the religion of the natives of India? What is the religion of the Yellow race? What part of the race belongs to the Buddhist religion? In what part of the world did the worship of God begin? What three great religions took the worship of one God? What are the chief distinctions between these three religions?

What is the prevailing form of government among savage people? What is an absolute monarchy? What nations or races have absolute monarchies? What is a limited monarchy? What countries have limited monarchies? What is a republic? What European countries are republics? In what continents are there most republics?

What is meant by trade? What is domestic commerce? What is foreign commerce? Name in order the five countries that have the largest foreign trade? Why is England the greatest commercial country in the world?

What commercial advantages has Canada? Name four ways by which goods are transported from one place to another.

North America.

What is the general shape of North America? How much of the earth's surface is in North America? What divides the continent into two great slopes? Which slope is larger? How is the eastern slope sub-divided? What belts of temperature cross North America? Why is the western slope of Mexico dry and the eastern slope well watered? Why is it that north of Mexico, through the United States and Canada, the western slope of the highland is well watered, and the eastern slope dry? Explain the rainfall in the central and eastern parts of North America.

Describe the Rocky Mountain highlands. What part of these highlands is called the Rocky Mountains? How far do the Rocky Mountains extend? Through what countries do they run? What mountains run between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific, in the United States? In Canada? What are the highest peaks of the Rocky Mountains? In what country are they? Why is the climate of Canada west of the Rocky Mountains so mild? What are the chief rivers of the Rocky Mountain highland?

Describe the Appalachian Highland. Through what parts of Canada does it run? What are the chief rivers of the Appalachian Highland? How was New England affected by the glacial ice-sheet? What is the highest peak of the Appalachian range? Explain the general formation of mountains after studying the illustration on page 60. What are the most important valleys in the Appalachian Highland? What great canal runs through the Mohawk valley?

Between what highlands does the St. Lawrence river run? Trace the course of the Laurentian Highland. What is the general character of the Laurentian Highland east of Hudson Bay? How was this highland worn down? How do you account for the irregular coast-line of the north-east part of North America, and for the many large islands to be found north and north-east of this continent?

Name the great lakes of the St. Lawrence basin. How were the basins of these lakes deepened? What is the difference between the height of the surface of Lake Superior and the mouth of the St. Lawrence? What obstructions are there to the passage of boats from Lake Superior to the ocean? How are these obstructions overcome?

What is the character of the great central portion of North America? What three great river systems drain the great central plain of North America? Where is the watershed dividing these three river systems? What is the character of the northern or Canadian slope of this central plain? Describe the Arctic slope of this plain: The forest tract: The wheat belt. How were the rich plains of the Red River district formed? Describe the prairies of the United States. What is the character of the Gulf coast? What are the chief products of the southern plain? How was the eastern plain of the United States formed? How was Florida formed?

United States.

What is meant by Congress? How many bodies are included in Congress? How are the members of the House of Representatives chosen? How are Senators chosen? For how many years are Senators chosen? For how long are Representatives chosen? How is the President elected? For how long is he elected? What is meant by the Cabinet? How many States are there in the Union? How are the individual States governed? What are the Territories? How is Washington controlled? Make a map of the United States and mark on it the cities described on pages 127, 128, 129.

Mexico.

Where do most of the people of Mexico live? What are the chief agricultural products of Mexico? The chief minerals? What is the capital? The chief port? Compare the cities of Mexico and Montreal.

Central America.

Name the States of Central America. Are they united into one country? What are the chief exports from Central America? What colony has Great Britain in Central America? How large is it? What is its chief town?

West Indies.

What are the chief products of the West Indies? Which is the largest island in the West Indies? What is the form of government? What is the capital? Name the leading islands in the West Indies that belong to Great Britain. Which is the largest of the British possessions in the West Indies? What country owns Puerto Rico? What form of government has Hayti? What is the capital of Hayti? What is the capital of Jamaica?

South America.

What is the general shape of South America? Is it larger or smaller than North America? In what respect are the two continents alike? What isthmus connects them? How wide is this isthmus? What mountain range divides South America into two slopes? Which slope is longer? Why do no large rivers run into the Pacific?

Which parts of South America are in the trade wind belts? What is the chief advantage of being in this belt?

What are Selvas? What is the highest plateau in America? How high is it? What great lake is on this plateau? Why is the plateau of Bolivia not very hot? Why is it not very cold? Which side of the Andes has most rain? Why? Where is the region known as the rainless coast? Why is there no rain in this district? What causes the desert of Atacama? What is the highest city in South America? How far is it from the equator? What is the nature of its climate? What is the name of the highest active volcano in the world? To what danger is Quito exposed? Into how many ranges do the Andes divide in the northern part of South America?

What is the shape of the Brazilian highland? How does the Brazilian highland compare with the Andes highland? With the Appalachian highland? What large rivers flow from the Brazilian highland? What are Campos?

Describe the Guiana highland. When does most rain fall on these highlands? Why?

Name the three great river basins of South America. Which is the largest river basin in the world? What are the chief branches of the Amazon? How far can steamers ascend the Amazon? Describe the Selvas. How is rubber obtained? What are the chief products of the Selvas?

Where is the valley of the La Plata? Compare its size with that of the Amazon. What are Pampas? What is the chief use of the Pampas?

What are Llanos? How were they formed? Why have they wet and dry seasons? Describe the changes on the Llanos in the wet and dry seasons. What are the differences between the three great South American plains; the Selvas, the Pampas, and the Llanos?

Which is the largest country in South America? Which the smallest? What part of South America is owned by Great Britain?

Draw maps of South America for the following purposes:—(1) Draw the three great highlands. (2) Draw the river basins. (3) Mark the position of the Llanos, the Selvas, and the Pampas. (4) Locate the countries and the capitals.

Europe.

Compare Europe and Canada in regard to size. What is the general character of the south-west part of Europe? Of the north-west of Europe? Of the central and eastern part of Europe? What is the peculiarity of the coastline of Europe compared with that of other continents? In what heat-belt does the chief part of Europe lie? Which part of Europe receives most rain? Why? Which part receives least rain? Why? Why is the western part of Europe much warmer than the eastern parts of America, in the same latitude? What is the influence of the bodies of water around Europe on its climate? What part of Europe has warmest summers and coldest winters?

What is the chief difference between the Alps and the Appalachian Mountains? How do you account for this difference? Name the most important tunnels through the Alps. Which is the largest tunnel in the world? What branch of the Alps runs through Italy? What great rivers rise in the Alps? Where are the largest silk manufactories in the world? Why are they in this district?

What is the general character of the mountains that run from Switzerland into Germany? What branches of the Alpine range run to the east and south-east?

What is the character of the mountains in the Balkan peninsula and in Greece?

Which are the highest mountains of Europe? Which are next in height? Give a general description of Spain. How high is the chief portion of Spain? Describe the climate of Spain. Why are the Spanish plateaus almost treeless? What are the most fertile parts of Spain? What are the chief products of Spain? What very important rock at the south-west of Spain? Why is it so important? Who owns it?

What is the most important river of Italy? What is the chief mountain range of Italy? What lakes in the northern part of Italy? In what way does Venice differ from other cities? How is Italy made fertile? What are the chief productions of Italy?

What mountains divide High Europe from Low Europe? Describe the Plain of Hungary. Why are so many harvesting machines sent to the Hungarian Plain from Canada? What are the leading products of Austria-Hungary?

How long is the Scandinavian Peninsula? Describe the western coast of Norway. Why are so many fish found near Norway? What celebrated whirlpool is on the west coast of Norway? Explain why the part of Norway within the Arctic Circle has such pleasant weather. How long is the day in summer at North Cape? What two races inhabit the peninsula of Scandinavia? What Yellow race lives in the northern part of Scandinavia? What are the chief exports of Norway and Sweden? How was Iceland formed? What two large islands form the leading portions of the British Isles? Why is there so great a rainfall in the British Isles? Which is the most mountainous part of the British Isles? What are the chief natural productions of Great Britain and Ireland? What is the leading ship-building district in the world? Why is this district suitable for ship-building? Describe the government of the British Isles. Explain what is meant by the United Kingdom: By the British Empire. How are governors of British Colonies appointed?

Describe the physical condition of France. What is the nature of the country in Holland and Belgium? What is the greatest difference between the appearance of these countries and of Canada? What celebrated battle was fought in Belgium? Are the regions of Europe north and west of the Alps well or poorly supplied with rain? Why is this so?

What are the chief productions of France, of Belgium, of Holland, of Germany?

What country ranks next to England in trade?

What is the general character of the surface of Russia? Why are there such large rivers in Russia? What is the nature of the climate of Russia? Why is there such a wide range of temperature in Russia? Why is there not enough rain in all parts of Russia? Why is the district around the Caspian Sea a salt marsh?

Asia.

What proportion of the earth's surface is covered by Asia? How much of the land surface is in Asia?

Why is the rainfall on the inner part of Tibet so light? Why are the lakes of Tibet salt? Where are the highest lakes in the world? What is the name of the highest mountain in the world? What is the highest mountain range in the world? Why do the rivers of India overflow their banks?

Why is the Desert of Gobi barren? Which is more barren—Gobi or Sahara?

What are monsoons? What influence do they have on the climate of Southern Asia? On the productiveness of the country? Where is the Dead Sea? Why is it so salt? Describe Arabia. What is the most noted production of Arabia?

What mountains run between Europe and Asia? What great plain in the north of Asia? What is the largest lake in the world? What three great rivers in the northern plain of Asia? What are tundras? What are steppes? What part of Asia has the largest forests? Where are the greatest grain fields of Asia?

What two great rivers have made a large part of the eastern part of Asia? Describe the delta plains of the Yellow River. What fractional part of the human race lives in China? To what race do the Chinese belong?

What part of the world has the largest rainfall? What are the three great river systems of India? How was the great plain of Northern India formed? What is the leading crop of the flood plain of India? What fractional part of the human race lives in India? Name the chief islands east and south-east of Asia. Make a list of the countries of Asia and their chief products.

Africa.

Why are the rivers of Africa not navigable far from the coast? What is notable in regard to the coast line of Africa. Why is the Sahara a desert? What is the general shape of a vertical section of Africa? What race inhabits most of Africa? Where is the Sudan? Why is it an important country? What European country controls the Sudan?

Where are the richest iron mines in the world? How does the Nile compare in length with the Amazon and the Mississippi? What large island is south-east of Africa?

Australia.

How does Australia compare with Canada in size? What is the nature of Australia near the coast? What is the nature of the central portion of Australia? Why are the lakes and marshes salt in the interior of Australia? Why are the largest of the Australian forests in the eastern part of the continent? Where are the great Australian gold mines found? To what race do the natives of Australia belong? Where are the most thriving Australian colonies? Name the most important islands and groups of islands north and east of Australia. Where are the Hawaiian Islands? To what country do they belong?

SUPPLEMENT.

Population of the Principal Cities of the World.

NORTH AMERICA.			Year.			Population.			Year.			Population.			Year.			Population.		
British America—			Chile—			1901 Santiago ..			296,695			Denmark—			1901 Copenhagen..			378,235		
Year.		Population.	1901	Valparaiso ..	132,941	England and Wales—			Norway and Sweden—			1902 Stockholm ..			305,000			1900 Christiania ..		
1901	Montreal ..	267,730	Colombia—			1903 Greater London			6,806,000			1902 Gottenborg ..			133,000			1900 Bergen ..		
1901	Toronto ..	208,041	1902	Bogotá ..	120,000	1901 Liverpool ..			684,000			Portugal—			1900 Lisbon ..			356,000		
1901	Quebec ..	68,840	1902	Medellin ..	53,000	1901 Manchester ..			544,000			1900 Oporto ..			167,000			Russia—		
1901	Ottawa ..	59,928	Ecuador—			1901 Birmingham..			522,000			1897 St. Petersburg			1,267,000			1897 Moscow ..		
1901	Hamilton ..	52,634	1904	Quito ..	80,000	1901 Leeds ..			428,000			1897 Warsaw ..			638,000			1897 Odessa ..		
1906	Winnipeg ..	90,204	Gulana—			1901 Sheffield ..			381,000			1900 Riga ..			283,000			Scotland—		
1901	Halifax ..	40,832	1891	Georgetown..	53,000	1901 Bristol ..			329,000			1903 Glasgow ..			786,000			1903 Edinburgh ..		
1901	St. John ..	40,711	1901	Paramaribo..	31,865	1901 Bradford ..			279,000			1903 Dundee ..			162,000			Spain—		
1901	London ..	37,983	1900	Cayenne ..	12,000	1901 Cardiff ..			164,000			1900 Madrid ..			539,000			1900 Barcelona ..		
1906	Vancouver ..	55,000	Paraguay—			France—			1901 Paris ..			2,714,000			1900 Valencia ..			213,000		
1906	Victoria ..	25,000	1900	Assuncion ..	51,700	1901 Marseille ..			491,000			1900 Sevilla ..			148,000			1900 Malaga ..		
Central America—			Peru—			1901 Lyon ..			459,000			1900 Switzerland—			1904 Zurich ..			169,000		
1898	Guatemala ..	74,000	1901	Lima ..	100,000	1901 Bordeaux ..			257,000			1904 Basel ..			120,000			ASIA.		
1901	San Salvador.	59,540	1901	Arequipa ..	35,000	1901 Lille ..			210,000			1904 Geneva ..			110,000			Asiatic Russia..		
1900	Leon ..	45,000	1901	Cuzco ..	20,000	1901 Toulouse ..			150,000			1897 Tiflis ..			160,000			1897 Tashkend ..		
1900	Managua ..	30,000	1901	Callao ..	16,000	1901 Havre ..			120,000			1897 Baku ..			112,000			1897 Irkutsk ..		
1900	San José ..	25,000	Uruguay—			Germany—			1900 Berlin ..			1,888,000			China—			1903 Canton ..		
Mexico—			1900	Montevideo..	253,000	1900 Hamburg ..			705,000			1899 Pekin ..			1,500,000			1903 Tientsin ..		
1901	Mexico ..	344,721	Venezuela—			1900 Munich ..			499,000			1903 Hankau ..			870,000			1903 Fuchau ..		
1901	Guadalajara..	101,208	1894	Caracas ..	73,000	1900 Leipzig ..			456,000			1903 Shanghai ..			620,000			British India—		
United States—			1894	Valencia ..	39,000	1900 Breslau ..			422,000			1901 Calcutta ..			1,125,000			1901 Bombay ..		
<i>See page 219.</i>			1894	Maracaibo ..	34,000	1900 Dresden ..			396,000			1901 Madras ..			509,000			EUROPE.		
West Indies—			Austria-Hungary—			1900 Cologne ..			372,000			Ireland—			1901 Belfast ..			349,000		
1902	Havana ..	275,000	1900	Vienna ..	1,674,957	Italy—			1901 Dublin ..			1901 Naples ..			563,000			1901 Milan ..		
1901	Port au Prince	50,000	1900	Budapest ..	732,322	1901 Rome ..			462,000			1901 Turin ..			335,000			1901 Palermo ..		
1893	Kingston ..	47,000	1900	Prague ..	201,589	1901 Genoa ..			234,000			1901 Florence ..			205,000			1901 Venice ..		
1902	Santiago ..	43,090	1900	Trieste ..	134,143	1901 Dresden ..			396,000			Netherlands—			1902 Amsterdam ..			535,000		
1902	Matanzas ..	36,374	Belgium—			1901 Limerick ..			38,000			1902 Rotterdam ..			348,000			South America.		
1902	Cienfuegos ..	30,038	1901	Brussels ..	562,893	Argentina—			Italy—			1901 Buenos Ayres.			965,000.			Argentina—		
SOUTH AMERICA.			Austria-Hungary—			1901 Rosario ..			122,156			1903 La Plata ..			75,023			1903 Cordoba ..		
Argentina—			1901	Antwerp ..	278,093	1903 Buenos Ayres.			965,000.			1903 Bahia ..			200,000			1903 La Plata ..		
1904	Buenos Ayres.	965,000.	1901	Liege ..	160,216	1903 Rosario ..			122,156			1903 Pernambuco.			190,000			1903 Cordoba ..		
1903	Rosario ..	122,156	1901	Ghent ..	162,291	1903 La Plata ..			75,023			1903 Par� ..			40,000			1903 Cordoba ..		
1903	La Plata ..	75,023	Balkan States—			Bolivia—			1900 La Paz ..			60,000			Brazil—			1900 Sucre ..		
1903	Cordoba ..	50,000	1904	Constantinople	1,125,000	1900 Sucre ..			20,900			1900 Rio de Janeiro			758,000			1900 Bahia ..		
Bolivia—			1900	Bukharest ..	282,000	1900 La Paz ..			60,000			1900 Pernambuco.			190,000			1900 Par� ..		
1900	La Paz ..	60,000	1904	Saloniki ..	105,000	1900 Sucre ..			20,900			1900 Sofia ..			67,900			1900 Par� ..		
1900	Sucre ..	20,900	Netherlands—			1900 Rio de Janeiro			758,000			1902 The Hague ..			222,000			1900 Bahia ..		

Population of the Principal Cities of the World.—CONTINUED.

Year.	Population.	Year.	Population.	Year.	Population	Year.	Population.
British India—Continued.		Japan—		Kâbul		Port Said	
1901	Hyderabad .. 448,000	1902	Tokyo .. 1,818,000	1895	.. 60,000	1897	.. 50,000
1901	Lucknow .. 264,000	1902	Osaka .. 995,000	1904	Mecca .. 60,000	1904	Zanzibar .. 50,000
1901	Rangoon .. 234,000	1902	Kyoto .. 380,000	1895	Kandahâr .. 50,000	1901	Freetown .. 34,000
1901	Benares .. 209,000	1902	Yokohama .. 326,000	1904	Jerusalem .. 42,000	1900	Tangier .. 30,000
1901	Delhi .. 208,000	Korea—		1895	Herât .. 30,000	1895	Tripoli .. 30,000
1901	Lahore .. 202,000	1902	Seoul .. 196,000	AFRICA.		1902	Kimberley .. 29,000
1901	Cawnpur .. 197,000	Siam—		1897	Cairo .. 570,000	1897	Monrovia .. 5,000
1901	Mandalay .. 183,000	1901	Bangkok .. 350,000	1897	Alexandria .. 319,000	OCEANIA.	
French Indo-China—		Southwest Asia—		1900	Tunis .. 170,000	1901	Melbourne .. 496,000
1901	Hanoi .. 150,000	1902	Teherân .. 280,000	1902	Cape Town .. 167,000	1901	Sydney .. 482,000
1901	Huê .. 80,000	1904	Smyrna .. 201,000	1900	Fez .. 140,000	1901	Adelaide .. 165,000
1901	Saigon .. 47,000	1904	Damascus .. 225,000	1895	Morocco .. 140,000	1901	Brisbane .. 119,000
East India Islands—		1902	Tabriz .. 200,000	1904	Johannesburg 158,000	1901	Auckland .. 67,000
1903	Manilla .. 302,000	1904	Bagdad .. 145,000	1895	Tananarivo .. 100,000	1901	Dunedin .. 52,000
1901	Surabaya .. 146,000	1904	Aleppo .. 127,000	1901	Algiers .. 96,000	1901	Wellington .. 49,000
1901	Batavia .. 115,000	1902	Ispahân .. 70,000	1901	Oran .. 88,000	1900	Honolulu .. 39,000
				1895	Kuka .. 60,000	1901	Hobart .. 25,000

Countries and Colonies.

NORTH AMERICA.			Year.	Area.	Population.
Year.	Area.	Population.	1896	Greece .. 25,000	2,433,000
1901	Belize .. 7,500	37,000	1901	Ireland .. 32,600	4,458,000
1901	Canada .. 3,729,665	5,371,315	1900	Italy .. 110,000	31,856,000
1902	Costa Rica .. 18,400	302,000	1902	Montenegro .. 3,600	228,000
1899	Cuba .. 44,000	1,572,000	1902	Netherlands .. 12,600	5,347,000
1900	Guatemala .. 48,000	1,647,000	1900	Norway .. 125,000	2,240,000
1901	Haiti (Island) .. 28,000	1,900,000	1900	Portugal .. 34,000	5,016,000
1902	Honduras .. 46,000	650,000	1900	Rumania .. 50,700	5,912,000
1905	Mexico .. 767,000	13,605,000	1897	Russia .. 2,095,000	106,000,000
1901	Newfoundland .. 42,200	217,000	1901	Scotland .. 30,000	4,472,000
1900	Nicaragua .. 49,500	500,000	1900	Servia .. 19,000	2,493,000
1901	Salvador .. 7,200	1,006,000	1900	Spain .. 195,000	18,618,000
1900	United States .. 3,567,563	76,303,387	1902	Sweden .. 173,000	5,198,000
SOUTH AMERICA.			1900	Switzerland .. 16,000	3,315,000
1902	Argentina .. 1,135,000	5,022,000	1903	European Turkey .. 65,000	6,130,000
1895	Brazil .. 3,218,000	16,000,000	1901	Wales .. 7,400	1,456,000
1898	British Guiana .. 104,000	286,000	ASIA.		
1900	Bolivia .. 703,000	1,633,000	17,000,000.	876,000,000.	
1901	Chile .. 307,000	3,146,000	1903	Afghanistan .. 215,000	4,000,000
1895	Colombia .. 504,000	4,000,000	1903	Arabia .. 1,000,000	1,050,000
1901	Dutch Guiana .. 46,000	72,000	1903	Asiatic Turkey .. 693,000	17,000,000
1890	Ecuador .. 116,000	1,205,000	1901	Baluchistan .. 132,000	1,050,000
1901	French Guiana .. 30,500	32,000	1897	Borneo .. 290,000	1,750,000
1899	Paraguay .. 157,000	630,000	1897	Celebes .. 71,000	2,000,000
1896	Peru .. 695,000	4,609,000	1900	Chinese Empire .. 4,277,000	426,047,000
1902	Uruguay .. 72,000	978,000	1901	India (British) .. 1,766,000	300,000,000
1894	Venezuela .. 594,000	2,444,000	1901	Indo-China (French) .. 256,000	18,000,000
EUROPE.			1900	Java .. 51,000	28,746,000
1900	Austria-Hungary .. 265,000	45,404,000	1899	Japan .. 148,000	46,542,000
1900	Belgium .. 11,400	6,693,000	1900	Korea .. 82,000	10,000,000
1904	Bulgaria .. 38,000	3,744,000	1901	Nepal .. 54,000	4,000,000
1901	Denmark .. 15,300	2,464,000	1902	Persia .. 628,000	9,500,000
1901	England .. 50,800	30,805,000	1900	Philippines .. 128,000	8,000,000
1901	France .. 207,000	38,961,000	1897	Russia in Asia .. 6,564,000	22,697,000
1900	Germany .. 208,700	56,367,000	1901	Siam .. 220,000	5,000,000
			1900	Sumatra .. 161,000	3,167,000

Countries and Colonies.

(CONTINUED.)

AFRICA.		11,500,000.	130,000,000.
Year.		Area.	Population.
1903	Abyssinia	.. 150,000	3,500,000
1896	Algeria	.. 185,000	4,429,000
1902	Cape Colony	.. 221,000	2,500,000
1903	Egypt	.. 400,000	9,821,000
1900	Kongo State	.. 900,000	30,000,000
1903	Liberia	.. 35,000	2,060,000
1901	Madagascar	.. 228,500	2,505,000
1903	Morocco	.. 220,000	5,000,000
1903	Orange River Colony	.. 48,000	208,000
1900	Sahara	.. 2,000,000	2,550,000
1901	Sudan	.. 2,000,000	50,000,000
1904	Transvaal	.. 111,000	1,268,000
1903	Tripoli	.. 340,000	1,000,000
1901	Tunis	.. 51,000	1,906,000
OCEANIA.		3,500,000.	6,000,000.
1900	Hawaii	.. 6,500	154,000
1900	New Guinea	.. 311,000	660,000
1901	New South Wales	.. 310,700	1,359,000
1901	New Zealand	.. 104,500	772,000
1901	Queensland	.. 668,500	503,000
1901	South Australia	.. 904,000	362,000
1901	Victoria	.. 88,000	1,201,000
1901	West Australia	.. 975,000	84,000

Leading Cities of the United States.

POPULATION, 1900 (over 100,000).

New York, N.Y. .. 3,437,202	Louisville, Ky. .. 204,731
Chicago, Ill. .. 1,698,575	Minneapolis, Minn. 202,718
Philadelphia, Pa. .. 1,293,697	Providence, R.I. .. 175,597
St. Louis, Mo. .. 575,238	Indianapolis, Ind.. 169,164
Boston, Mass. .. 560,892	St. Paul, Minn. .. 163,065
Baltimore, Md. .. 508,957	Kansas City, Mo... 163,752
Cleveland, Ohio .. 381,768	Rochester, N.Y. .. 162,608
Buffalo, N.Y. .. 352,387	Denver, Colo. .. 133,859
San Francisco, Cal. 342,782	Toledo, Ohio .. 131,822
Cincinnati, Ohio .. 325,902	Allegheny, Pa. .. 129,896
Pittsburg, Pa. .. 321,616	Omaha, Neb. .. 102,555
New Orleans, La... 287,104	Worcester, Mass... 118,421
Detroit, Mich. .. 285,704	Syracuse, N.Y. .. 108,374
Milwaukee, Wis. .. 285,315	New Haven, Conn.. 108,027
Washington, D.C... 278,718	Paterson, N.J. .. 105,171
Newark, N.J. .. 246,070	Fall River, Mass... 104,863
Jersey City, N.J... 206,433	Los Angeles, Cal... 102,479

Average Height of Plateaus.

	Feet.		Feet.
Tibet	.. 14,000	Columbia	.. 4,500
Bolivia	.. 12,000	Great Basin	.. 4,000
The Pamirs	.. 12,000	Gobi	.. 4,000
Mexico	.. 8,000	Guiana	.. 2,500
Abyssinia	.. 7,000	Brazil	.. 2,000
Australian	.. 5,000	Switzerland	.. 2,000
Colorado	.. 5,000	Dekkan	.. 2,000

Height of Noted Mountains.

NAME.	LOCATION.	Height in feet.
Aconcagua	.. Chile	.. 22,422
Ararat	.. Turkey	.. 17,260
Chimborazo	.. Ecuador	.. 21,420
Dapsang	.. Tibet	.. 28,278
Elburz	.. Russia	.. 18,526
Everest	.. India	.. 29,002
Kenia	.. East Africa	.. 18,045
Kilauea	.. Hawaiian Islands	.. 4,040
Kilimanjaro	.. East Africa	.. 19,600
Kanchanjanga	.. India	.. 28,156
Logan	.. Canada	.. 19,500
Mauna Loa	.. Hawaiian Islands	.. 13,600
Mitchell	.. North Carolina	.. 6,711
Mt. Blanc	.. France	.. 15,810
Orizaba	.. Mexico	.. 17,380
Pike's Peak	.. Colorado	.. 14,147
Popocatepetl	.. Mexico	.. 17,784
St. Elias	.. Canada	.. 18,010
Shasta	.. California	.. 14,440
Vesuvius	.. Italy	.. 3,948
Washington	.. New Hampshire	.. 6,288
Whitney	.. California	.. 14,898

Rivers and River Basins.

RIVER.	Area of Basin, square miles.	Length in miles.
Amazon	.. 2,500,000	4,000
Kongo	.. 1,500,000	3,300
Nile	.. 1,400,000	4,000
Mississippi (Missouri)	.. 1,250,000	4,200
Plata	.. 1,250,000	2,300
Yangtze	.. 500,000	3,300
Volga	.. 500,000	2,300
Ganges	.. 450,000	1,800
St. Lawrence	.. 350,000	2,000
Danube	.. 300,000	2,000
Orinoco	.. 300,000	1,500
Columbia	.. 250,000	1,400
Colorado	.. 210,000	1,100

Area of Oceans.

OCEAN.	Square miles.	OCEAN.	Square miles.
Pacific	.. 70,000,000	Indian	.. 23,000,000
Atlantic	.. 35,000,000	Antartic	.. 7,000,000
Arctic	.. 4,000,000		

Principal Salt Lakes.

LAKE.	Area in square miles.	LAKE.	Area in square miles.
Caspian Sea	.. 180,000	Issik-Kul	.. 2,466
Aral	.. 26,300	Van	.. 2,000
Balkash	.. 12,500	Great Salt Lake	.. 1,875
Eyre	.. 4,000	Urumiyah	.. 1,736
Dead Sea	.. 444		

Principal Fresh-Water Lakes.

LAKE.	Area in sq. miles.	LAKE.	Area in sq. miles.
Lake Superior ..	32,000	Lake of the Woods ..	7,650
Victoria Nyanza ..	26,500	Ladoga ..	7,100
Michigan ..	22,450	Albert Nyanza ..	7,500
Huron ..	23,000	Ontario ..	6,900
Tanganyika ..	15,000	Athabasca ..	4,600
Baikal ..	14,000	Titicaca ..	3,800
Great Bear ..	14,000	Nicaragua ..	3,600
Nyassa ..	12,000	Onega ..	3,380
Chad ..	11,000	Tun-ting ..	2,300
Great Slave ..	10,800	Wener ..	2,300
Bangweolo ..	10,200	Champlain ..	1,500
Winnipeg ..	8,900	Dembea ..	1,360
Erie ..	7,800	Geneva ..	240

Aggregate Trade of Canada.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, BY COUNTRIES, 1904.

Great Britain ..	\$179,552,285	West Indies ..	\$9,066,417
United States ..	230,170,729	France ..	7,887,290
Germany ..	9,847,767	China and Japan ..	3,124,090

Total Exports.		Total Imports.	
Great Britain ..	\$117,591,376	Great Britain ..	\$ 61,960,909
United States ..	73,173,549	United States ..	156,997,180

PRODUCE OF MINES, 1903.

			Value Exported in 1903.
Coal ..	..	..	\$15,957,946
Gold ..	..	..	18,834,490
Silver ..	..	..	1,700,779
Nickel ..	..	..	5,002,204
Lead ..	..	..	762,660
Copper ..	..	..	5,728,261
Gypsum ..	..	..	384,259
Iron ..	..	..	707,838
			\$ 5,452,434
			16,437,528
			1,802,690
			878,159
			384,077
			2,907,705
			307,398
			733,230

PRODUCE OF FOREST.

	Value of Exports in 1904.		Value of Exports in 1904.
Lumber ..	..\$26,005,318	Wood Pulp ..	..\$ 2,409,074
Square Timber ..	2,132,274	Wood for Wood Pulp ..	1,788,049

PRODUCE OF FISHERIES, 1902.

			Value Exported in 1902.
Codfish ..	..	..	\$4,015,978
Salmon ..	..	..	4,335,040
Lobsters ..	..	..	3,133,737
Herring ..	..	..	1,723,098
			\$2,781,822
			2,102,099
			2,904,360
			517,743

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS, 1904.

Exports of 1904.		Exports of 1904.	
Wheat	.. \$18,225,525	Barley	.. \$ 489,437
Apples (green)	.. 4,591,169	Peas	.. 1,133,268
Maize	.. 45,045	Flour	.. 6,131,015
Hay	.. 1,898,068	Oats	.. 1,603,461

ANIMALS AND THEIR PRODUCTS, 1904.

Exports of 1904.		Exports of 1904.	
Cheese	.. \$24,184,566	Horses	.. \$ 401,607
Butter	.. 4,724,155	Furs	.. 2,622,327
Cattle	.. 10,424,671	Wool	.. 306,289
Bacon	.. 12,603,521	Eggs	.. 1,053,396

Longest Canadian Railways.

	Miles.
Canadian Pacific ..	8,062
Grand Trunk ..	3,158
Intercolonial and Prince Edward Island ..	1,576
Canadian Northern ..	2,500

Canals.

RIVER ST. LAWRENCE AND LAKES—

	Length in miles.	No. of Locks.	Rise in feet.
Lachine ..	8½	5	45
Soulanges ..	14	5	84
Cornwall ..	11	6	48
Farran's Point ..	1	1	3½
Rapide Plat ..	3½	2	11½
Galops ..	7½	3	15½
Murray ..	5½	—	—
Welland ..	26¾	26	326¾
Sault Ste. Marie ..	1½	1	18

OTTAWA AND RIDEAU RIVERS—

Ste. Anne's Locks. ..	1	1	3
Carillon ..	¾	2	16
Chute à Blondeau ..	1	—	—
Grenville ..	5¾	5	43¾
Rideau ..	16½	49	282½
Perth Branch ..	6	2	26

RICHELIEU AND LAKE CHAMPLAIN—

St. Ours Lock and Dam ..	1	1	5
Chambly ..	12	9	74

NOTE.—The Soulanges Canal takes the place of the Beauharnois Canal.

NOTE 2.—Total length of navigable waters on the Rideau Canal is 126½ miles.

SELECTED LIST OF GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES.

KEY TO PRONUNCIATION.

ā as a in ale.
 ă " a " am, carry.
 ah " a " arm, car.
 aw " a " all.
 ē " e " eve.
 ẽ " e " end.

ī as i in ice.
 ĭ " i " ill.
 ō " o " old.
 ȳ " o " odd.
 ū as u " use.

ũ as u in up.
 ōō " oo " food.
 oō " oo " foot.
 ow " ow " cow.

ch as ch in chair.
 g " g " go.
 ng " ng " sing.
 zh " z " azure.

NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.
Abitibi	ah-bē-tib'-bē.
Abyssinia	ab-is-sin'-e-a.
Acapulco	ah-kah-pool'-ko.
Acarai	ah-kah-rē'.
Achil	ak'-il.
Aconcagua	ah-kōn-kah'-gwah.
Aden	ā'-den (ah'-den).
Adige	ād'-ē-jā (ah'-de-jā).
Adirondack	ād-i-ron'-dak.
Adrianople	ād-re-ān-ō'-p'l.
Adriatic	ād-re-āt-ik (ā-dri-at'-ik).
Aegean	ē-jē'-an.
Aetna	ēt-nah.
Afghanistan	ahf-gahn-is-tahn'.
Agassiz	äg'-as-sē.
Aix-la-Chapelle	āks-lah-shah-pēl'.
Ajaccio	ah-yaht'-cho.
Alabama	āl-ā-bah'-ma.
Alaska	ah-las'-kah.
Albany	awl'-bā-nē.
Alberni	āl-ber'-nē.
Alberta	āl-ber'-ta.
Aleutian	ah-lu'-shan.
Alexandria	āl-egs-an'-dri-ah (āl-eks-).
Algiers	āl-jeerz'.
Allegheny	āl'-le-gā-nē.
Allumette	ahl-lū-met'.
Alma	āl'-mā.
Alsace	ahl-sahs'.
Altai	ahl-tī'.
Amazon	ām'-ā-zōn.
Amiens	am'-i-enz.
Amur	ah-moor'.
Andes	ān'-dēz.
Anegada	ah-nā-gah'-dah.
Angers	ahn-zhā'.
Anglesey	ang'-g'l-sē.
Annapolis	ān-nāp'-ō-lis.
Antarctic	ant-ark'-tik.
Anticosti	an-tī-kos'-tī.
Antigonish	ant'-ig-o-nish'.
Antigua	ahn-tē'-gwah.
Antilles	ahn-til'-lēz.
Appennines	āp'-en-nīnz.
Appalachian	ap-pa-lā'-chī-an (ap-pa-lāch'-[i-an]).
Ararat	ār'-ā-rat.
Archipelago	ahr-kī-pel'-ā-gō.
Arequipa	ah-rā-kee'-pah.
Argenteuil	ahr-zhōn-tū'y'.
Argentina	ahr-jēn-tee'-na.

NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.
Argyll	ahr-gil'.
Arica	ah-rē'-kah.
Arichat	ar'-ī-shat.
Arizona	ar-ī-zō'-na.
Arkansas	ahr'-kan-saw.
Armagh	ahr-mah'.
Aroostook	ā-roōs'-toōk.
Asia	ā'-she-a (ā'-zhe-a).
Assiniboia	as-sin-ī-boi'-a.
Assiniboine	as-sin'-ī-boin.
Assuan	ahs-swahn'.
Athabasca	āth-ā-bās'-kā.
Athens	āth'-ēnz.
Australia	aws-trā'-lī-a.
Austria	aws'-trī-a.
Avon	āv'-ūn.
Aylmer	āl'-mūr.
Ayr	air
Azores	ah-zorz'.
Azov	ā'-zov (ah-zov').
Baden	bah'-den.
Bagot	bah-gō'.
Bahama	bah-hā'-mah.
Bahia	bah-e'-ah.
Baikal	bī-kahl'.
Balearic	bāl-e-ār'-ik.
Balkan	bawl'-kan.
Baltimore	bawl'-tī-mōre.
Baluchistan	bā-loo'-chis-tahn'.
Banff	bamf.
Bangkok	ban-kōk'.
Barbados	bahr-bā'-dōz.
Barcelona	bahr-sē-lō'-nah.
Basel	bah'-zēl.
Batiscan	bah-tees-kon'.
Baton Rouge	bat'-un-roōzh.
Batum	bah-toōm'.
Beauce	bōce.
Beauharnois	bō-ahr-nwa(h)'.
Bechuanaland	betch-oō-ah'-nā-land.
Bedeque	bē-dēk'.
Behring	bē'-ring.
Belfast	bēl-fast'.
Belize	bē-leez'.
Bellechasse	bēl-shahs'.
Belle-Isle	bēl-ile'.
Belleville	bēl'-vil.
Benares	ben-ah'-rēz.
Bengal	ben-gawl'.

NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.
Ben Nevis	ben-něv'-is.
Bergen	běř'-gěn.
Berlin	běr-lin'.
Bermudas	běr-mū'-děz.
Berne	běrn.
Bersimis	ber-sě-meě'.
Berthier	ber-te-ā'.
Beyrout	bā'-root.
Biafra	bē-af'-ra.
Biarritz	bē-ahr-ritz'.
Blanc (Mont)	mong-blong.
Bloemfontein	bloom'-fōn-tin'.
Bogota	bō-gō'-tah'.
Bokhara	bō-kah'-rah.
Bolivia	bō-liv'-i-ā.
Bologna	bō-lōn'-ya.
Bonaventure	bōn-a-věnt'-cher.
Bonifacio	bō-ně-fah'-cho.
Bordeaux	bōr-dō'.
Borneo	bōr'-nē-ō.
Bosporus	bōs'-pō-rūs.
Boularderie	boo'-lahr-drē.
Boulogne	boo-lōne'.
Bourbon	boor'-būn.
Brahmaputra	brah-mā-poo'-trā.
Braich y Pwll	brī'-ke-pool.
Bras d'Or	brah-dōr'.
Brazil	brā-zil'.
Brazos	brah'-zōs.
Bremen	brēm'-en.
Breslau	brēs'-low.
Breton	brit'-un (brēt-ūn).
Brindisi	brēn'-dē-zē.
Britain	brit'-t'n.
Buchan Ness	būk'-an-ness.
Bucharest	bū-ka-rest'.
Budapest	boo'-da-pest.
Buenos Ayres	bō-nūs-ā'-riz.
Burma	bur'-ma.
Butte	būte.
Cabul	kah-bool'.
Cacouna	kah-koo-nah'.
Cadiz	kā'-diz.
Caicos	kī'-kōs.
Cairo	kī'-rō.
Calcutta	kāl-kut'-ta.
Calgary	kāl'-gah-rē.
Callao	kahl-lah'-o.
Calumet	kāl'-u-met.
Cambrian	kām'-brī-en.
Cambridge	kām'-bridge.
Campbellton	kām'-el-tun.
Campeche	kahm-pā'-chā.
Canaan	kā'-nān.
Canso	kān'-sō.
Canton	kān-ton'.
Caracas	kah-rah'-kahs.
Caraquet	kah-rah-ket'.
Caribbean	kār-ib-bē'-an.
Carillon	kah-reel-yon'.
Carmarthen	kahr-mahr'-then.
Carolina	kār-ō-lin-ā.
Carpathian	kahr-pā'-thī-an.
Cassiar	kas'-sī-ahr.
Cassiquiare	kah-sē-kē-ah'-rā.
Catoche	kah-tō'-chā.
Caucasus	kaw'-kah-sūs.
Caughnawaga	kaw-nah-waw'-gah.
Cavan	kāv'-ān.
Cayenne	kā-ēn' (kī-ēn').
Celebes	sěl'-ē-bēz.

NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.
Cenis	sěh-ně'.
Cetinje	tsě'-tēn-yā.
Ceuta	sū'-tā.
Cevenne	sā-věnn'.
Ceylon	sē-lōn' (sīl-on').
Chad	chahd.
Chaleur	shah-loor'.
Chambly	shahm'-blē.
Champlain	shām-plāne'.
Charlevoix	shahr-lē-voi'.
Charlo	shahr'-lō.
Chateauguay	shah-tō-gā'.
Chatham	chāt'-am.
Cherbourg	sher-bürg.
Cherrapunji	chěr-rah poon'-jē.
Chesapeake	ches'-ā-pěk.
Cheshire	chěsh'-ir.
Cheticamp	shet-ē-kong'.
Cheviot	chěv'-ē-ūt.
Cheyenne	shī-enn'.
Chicago	shī-kaw'-go.
Chicoutimi	she-koo'-tē-mē.
Chidley	chid'le.
Chignecto	shig-něk'tō.
Chili	chīl'-lē.
Chilkat	chīl'-kat.
Chilliwick	chīl'-lē-wāk.
Chiltern	chīl'-tern.
Chimborazo	chim-bō-rah'-zō.
Christiania	kris-tē-ah'-nē-ah.
Cienfuegos	sē-ēn-fwā'-gōce.
Cincinnati	sin-sin-nah'-te.
Coaticook	kō-at'-ī-kook.
Cobequid	kōb'ē-kwid.
Cobourg	kō'-bürg.
Cocagne	kō-kān'.
Cochin	kō'-chin.
Cologne	kō-lōne'.
Colon	kō-lōne'.
Colorado	kōl-o-rah'-do.
Connecticut	kōn-net'-ī-kūt.
Constantinople	kōn-stan-tī-nō'-p'l.
Copenhagen	kō-pen-hā'-gen.
Cordova	kōr'-dō-vah.
Corea	kō-rē'-ah.
Corinth	kōr'-inth.
Corrientes	kōr-rē-en'-tēs.
Corsica	kōr'-sī-kah.
Cotopaxi	kō-tō-paks'-ē.
Coutts	kōōts.
Cowichan	kow'-itch-an.
Crimea	křim-ē'a.
Cromarty	křom'-ar-tē.
Curacao	kū-rā-sō'.
Cuzco	koōs'-ko.
Cyclades	sīk'-lah-děz.
Dahomey	dah-hō'mā.
Dakota	dā-kō'-tā.
Dalhousie	dāl-hōō'-zē.
Danube	dān-ūb.
Danzig	dant'zig.
Dardanelles	dahr-dā-nělz'.
Darien	dā-rē-ēn'.
Delaware	děl'-ah-ware.
Delhi	děl'hī.
Deloraine	děl-o-rān'.
Demerara	dēm-ēr-ah'rā.
Deseronto	dēs-ēr-ōn'-tō.
Des Moines	dē-moin'.
Detroit	dē-troit'.
Devon	děv'-un.

NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.	NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.
Dieppe	dē-epp'.	Gobi	gō'-bē.
Dijon	dē-zhon'.	Godavery	gō-dah'-ver-e.
Dnieper	nē'-p'r.	Goderich	gōd'-rich.
Dniester	nē'-ster.	Gothard	gōth'-ahrd.
Dominica	dōm-i-nee'-kah.	Gothenburg	gōt'-en-bürg.
Dovrefield	dō-vrē-fe-eld'.	Gracias-a-Dios	grah'-sē-ahs-ah-dē-ōce'.
Drave	drāve (drah'-veh).	Granada	grah-nah'-dah.
Drogheda	drōhk'-ē-dah.	Greenock	gren'-uk.
Duluth	dū-loōth'.	Greenwich	grīn'-ij (grēn'-ij).
Dumfries	dūm-freece'.	Grenada	grēn-ā'-dah.
Dundas	dūn-dās'.	Guadalajara	gwah-dah-lah-hah'-ra.
Dunedin	dūn-ē'-din.	Guadalquivir	gwah-dahl-kwiv'-er.
Dwina	dwee'-nah.	Guadeloupe	gaw-dē-loop'.
Dyea	dī-ē'-ah.	Guam	gwahm.
Earn	urn.	Guardafui	gwahr'-dā-fē.
Ebro	ē'-brō.	Guatemala	gaw-tē-mah'-la.
Ecuador	ēk-wah-dōr'.	Guayaquil	gwī-a-kēl'.
Edinburgh	ēd'-in-būr-ro (ēd'-in-bürg).	Guayra	gwī'-rah.
Egypt	ē'-jipt.	Guelf	gwēlf.
Elbe	ēlb.	Guernsey	gurn'-zē.
Eleuthera	ē-lū'-thēr-ah.	Guiana	gē-ah'-nah.
Elgin	ēl'-gin (ēl'-jin in U.S.).	Guinea	gin'-ē.
Ellice	ēl'-lis.	Haarlem	hahr'-lēm.
El Paso	ēl-pah'-sō.	Hague	hāg.
England	ing'-glānd.	Hainan	hī-nahn'.
Erebus	ēr'-ē-būs.	Halle	hahl'-leh.
Erie	ēr'-rē.	Hanoi	hah-noi'.
Erz Gebirge	ērts-gē-bēr'-gē.	Havana	hah-vān'-ah.
Escuminac	ēs-kū'-min-ak.	Haverhill	hā'-vēr-īl.
Esquimalt	ēs-kwī'-mawlt'.	Havre	ahvr.
Essequibo	ēs-seh-kwee'-bō.	Hawaii	hah-wī'-ē.
Etchemin	ēt'-chē-min.	Hayti	hā'-tē.
Euboea	ū-bē'-ah.	Hebrides	hēb'-ri-dēz.
Euphrates	ū-frā'-tēz.	Hecate	hēk'-ā-tē.
Europe	ū'-rūp.	Heidelberg	hī'-del-bürg.
Everest	ēv'-ēr-ēst.	Helena	hēl'-ē-nah.
Eyre	air.	Herzegovina	hērt-sē-gō-vē'-nah.
Falkland	fawk'-land.	Himalaya	hī-mah'-la-yah (him-ā-lā'-[yah]).
Falmouth	fāl'-mouth.	Hindo Koosh	hin'-doo koōsh'.
Fermanagh	fūr-man'-ah.	Hochelaga	hōsh-ē-lah'-gah.
Fiji	fē'-jē.	Honduras	hon-dū'-ras.
Florence	flōr'-ence.	Honolulu	hōn-o-loo'-loo.
Florida	flōr'-i-dah.	Hoogly	hōō'-glē.
Fredericton	fred'-er-ik-tūn.	Houlton	hōl'-tun.
Fuchau	foō'-chow.	Houston	hūs'-tūn.
Funchal	foōn-shahl'.	Hyderabad	hi-dūr-ah-bad'.
Fundy	fūn'-dē.	Iberville	ē-bār-vēl'.
Funen	foō'-nen.	Idaho	ī'-dā-ho.
Fujiyama	foo-jē-yah'-mah.	Illecillewaet	īl-lē-sil'-lē-wet.
Gabarus	gah-bah-roos'.	Illinois	īl-līn-oi'.
Gaeta	gah-ā'-tah.	Indiana	in-de-ān'-ah.
Galapagos	gāl-a-pā'-gōs.	Indianapolis	in-de-an-ap'-ō-lis.
Galicia	gah-lish'-i-ah.	Indus	in'-dūs.
Gallinas	gal-lē'-nas.	Inverness	in-vēr-ness'.
Galway	gawl'-way.	Iona	ī-ō'-nah (ē-ō'-nah).
Gananoque	gan-an-ōk'.	Iowa	ī'-o-wah.
Ganges	gan'-jēz.	Iquique	ē-kē'-kā.
Garonne	gah-rōn'.	Irak Arabi	ē-rak' ahr'-a-be.
Gaspe	gas'-pē (gahs-pā').	Iran	ē-rahn'.
Gatineau	gah-tē-nō'.	Ireland	īr'-land.
Gebirge	gē-bēr'-gē.	Irkutsk	īr-koōtsk'.
Genoa	jen'-ō-ah.	Iser	ē'-zer.
Ghent	gēnt.	Islay	ī'-lā.
Ghizeh	gē'-zēh.	Itasca	ī-tas'-kah.
Gibraltar	jī-brawl'-ter.	Iviça	ē-vē'-sah.
Gironde	jī-rond'.	Jacques Cartier	zhāk-kahr-tē-ā'.
Glace	glāce.	Jacquet	jak'-ēt.
Glasgow	glās'-gō (glas'-kō).	Jamaica	jāh-mā'-kah.
Gleichen	glī'-ken.	Java	jah'-vah.
Gloucester	glōs'-ter.	Jemseg	jēm'-sēg.

NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.	NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.
Jena	yā'-nah.	Loch Linnhe	lōk-līn'-nē.
Jerusalem	jě-rū'-sā-lem.	Lofoden	lō-fō'-den.
Johannesburg	yō-hahn'-nes-burg.	Loire	lwahr.
Joliet	jō'-lī-ēt.	Longueuil	long-gale' (lon-gā'y).
Juan de Fuca	jū-an-dē-fū'-ka (wan-dā-foo'-	Lorenço Marques	lō-ren'-sō mahr'-kēs.
Juneau	jū-nō'. [ka.	L'Orignal	lō-reen-yahl'.
Jungfrau	yoōng'-frow.	Los Angeles	lōs ang'-gēl-ēs (lōs an'-jēl-
Kabul	kah-bool'.	Lotbiniere	lōt-bē-nī-ār'. [ēs).
Kamchatka	kahm-chāt'-kah.	Louisburg	lōō'-is-būrg.
Kamouraska	kah-moo-rah's'-kah.	Louisiana	loo ē-zē-ah'-nah.
Karakorum	kah-rah-kō'-rum.	Louth	lowth.
Kaslo	kaz'-lō.	Lucknow	lūk'-now.
Kassala	kahs-sah'-lah.	Lyons	lī'-ūnz.
Katrine	kāt'-rin.	Mabou	mah-boo'.
Katahdin	kah-tah'-din.	Macao	mah-kah'-o.
Keewatin	kē-wah'-tin.	Macon	mā'-kūn.
Kenora	kē-nō'rá.	Madagascar	mad-ah-gās'-kahr.
Kennebecasis	kēn-nē-bēk-ā'-sis.	Madame	mah-dahm'.
Khartoum	kahr-toom'.	Madawaska	mad-ah-wōs'-kah.
Khiva	kē'-vah.	Madeira	mah-dē'-ra.
Khyber	kī'-būr.	Madras	mah-drās'.
Kiel	keel.	Madrid	mah-drid'.
Kiev	kē'-ev.	Mafeking	mah-fē-king'.
Kilimanjaro	kil-e-mahn-jah'-ro.	Magaguadavic	māk-ā-dā'-vē.
Kincardine	kin-kahr'-dīn.	Magdalen	māg'-dā-lēn.
Kiolen	kē-o'-len.	Magellan	mah-jēl'-lan.
Kioto	kē-ō'-tō.	Maggiore	mahd-jō'-rā.
Kircudbright	kīr-koō'-brē.	Magog	mā'-gōg.
Kootenay	koo'-ten-ā.	Malacca	mah-lak'-ka.
Korea	kō-rē'-ah.	Malaga	mah'-lah-gah.
Kouchibouguac	koo-shē-boo-gwak'.	Malay	mah-lā'.
Kuen Luen	kwen-loōn'.	Manan	man-ān'.
Kurile	koo'-ril.	Manitoba	man-ī-tō'-bah.
Kyoto	kē-ō'-tō.	Manitoulin	man-ī-too'-lin.
La Beauce	lah-bōce'.	Maracaibo	mahr rah-kī'-bō.
Labelle	lah-bēl'.	Margarie	mahr gah-rē'.
Labrador	lāb'-rā-dōr.	Marmora	mahr'-mō-rā.
Labuan	lah-boō-ahn'.	Marquesas	mahr-kā'-sāhs.
Laccadive	lak'-kah-dive.	Marseilles	mahr-sālz'.
Lachine	lah-shēn'.	Martinique	mahr-tī-nēk'.
Ladoga	lah-dō'-gah.	Mascarene	mās-ka-rēn'.
Ladrones	lah-drōnz'.	Maskinonge	mās-kē-nōn-jā.
La Guayra	lah-gwī'-rah.	Massachusetts	mās sā-chū'-sēts.
Lahave	lah-hāv'.	Massowa	māhs-sow'-ah.
Lanark	lān'-ark.	Matamoros	mat-a-mō'-ros.
La Paz	lah-pahz'.	Matanzas	mah-tān'-zās.
La Plata	lah-plah'-tah.	Mattawamkeag	mat-ta-wōm'-kēg.
La Prairie	lah-prā'-rē.	Maugerville	mā'-jēr-vīl.
L'Assomption	lahs-sōn-se-on'.	Mauritius	maw-rish'-ī-us.
Laurentian	law-rēn'-shi-an.	Mecca	mēk'-ka.
Lausanne	lō-zahn'.	Medina	mā-dē'-nah.
Laval	lah-vahl.	Megantic	mē-gān'-tik.
Lebanon	lēb'-ā-nun.	Melbourne	mēl'-būrn.
Leipsic	lip'-sik.	Memphremagog	mēm-frē-mā'-gog.
Lepreau	lē-prō'.	Menai	mēn'-ī.
Letete	lē-tēt'.	Mendocino	mēn-dō-sē'-nō.
Levant	lē-vānt'.	Mer de Glace	mūr-dē-glās'.
Levis	lē'-ve.	Mersey	mūr'-zē.
Leyden	lī'-dēn.	Merthyr Tydvil	mūr-thūr tid'-vīl.
Liege	lē-āzh'.	Messina	mēs-sē'-nah.
Lille	lēl.	Metapedia	mēt-ah-pē'-dī-ah.
Lillooet	lil'-loō-ēt.	Meteghan	mēt-ā'-gān.
Lima	lē'-mah.	Meuse	mūz.
Limoges	lē-mōzh'.	Mexico	mēks'-ī-kō.
Lincoln	link'-ūn.	Michigan	mish'-ī-gān.
Lipari	lip'-ah-rē.	Michipicoten	mish-ī-pī-kō'tēn.
Lisbon	liz'-būn.	Milan	mīl'-an (mil-an').
L'Islet	lē-lā'.	Milwaukee	mil-waw'-kē.
Listowel	lis-tō'-ēl.	Minas	mī'-nas.
Llanelly	lah-neth'-le.	Minneapolis	mīn-nē-ap'-ō-lis.
		Minnesota	min-nē-sō'-ta.

NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.
Minorca	min-or'-ka.
Miquelon	mik-ě-lon'.
Mira	mī'-rah.
Miramichi	mīr-a-mě-shē'.
Miscou	mis'-koō.
Missisquoi	mis-sis'-kwoi.
Mississippi	mis-is-sip'-pē.
Missouri	mis-soo'-rē.
Mitylene	mit-ī-lē'-nē.
Mobile	mō-bēl'.
Mocha	mō'-kah.
Mocodome	mōk'-ō-dōme.
Moluccas	mō-lūk'-kaz.
Mombasa	mōm-balī'-sah.
Monaco	mōn'-ah-kō.
Monaghan	mōn'-ā-han.
Montague	mōn'-tā-gū.
Montana	mōn-tah' nah.
Montauk	mōn-tawk'.
Montcalm	mōnt-kahm'.
Montenegro	mon-tā-nā'-grō.
Montevideo	mon-tē-vīd'-ē-o.
Montmagny	mon-mahn-yē'.
Montreal	mon-trē-awl'.
Morocco	mō-rōk'-kō.
Moscow	mōs'-kō.
Mozambique	mō-zām-bēk'.
Munich	mū'-nik.
Muskoka	mūs-kō'-kah.
Musquash	mūs'-kwosh.
Musquodoboit	mūsk-ō-dōb'-īt.
Nagasaki	nah-gā-sah'-kē.
Nakusp	na-kūsp'.
Nanaimo	nan-ī'-mō.
Nantes	nānts.
Napanee	nap'-ā-nē.
Naples	nā'-pelz.
Nashwaak	nāsh'-wawk.
Nassau	nas'-saw.
Natal	nā-tahl'.
Nauwigewauk	naw-wij'-ē-wawk.
Nechaco	nē-chak'-o.
Nepal	nē-pawl'.
Nepisiguit	nep-is'-ī-gwit.
Nerepis	ner'-ē-pis.
Nevada	nē-vah'-dah.
Newfoundland	nū-fūnd-land'.
New Orleans	nū ōr'-lē-anz.
New Zealand	nū zē' land.
Niagara	nī-āg'-ā-rā.
Nicaragua	nik-ah-rah'-gwah.
Nice	nēs.
Nicobar	nik-o-bahr'.
Nicolet	nīk-ō-lā'.
Nictaux	nīk'-tō.
Niger	nī'-jēr.
Nile	nīl.
Nimes	nēm.
Nipigon	nīp'-ī-gon.
Nipissing	nīp'-is-sing.
Norwich	nor'-rij (nor'-ritch).
Notre Dame	not'r dahm'.
Nottawasaga	nōt-tā-wā saw'-gā.
Nova Scotia	nō'-vā skō'-shā.
Nova Zembla	nō'-vā zēm'-blā.
Nyanza	nē-ahn'-zah.
Nyassa	nē-ahs'-sah.
Oahu	ō-ah'-hoo.
Obi	ō'-bē.
Oceania	ō-shē-ah'-nī-a.
Oder	ō'-der.

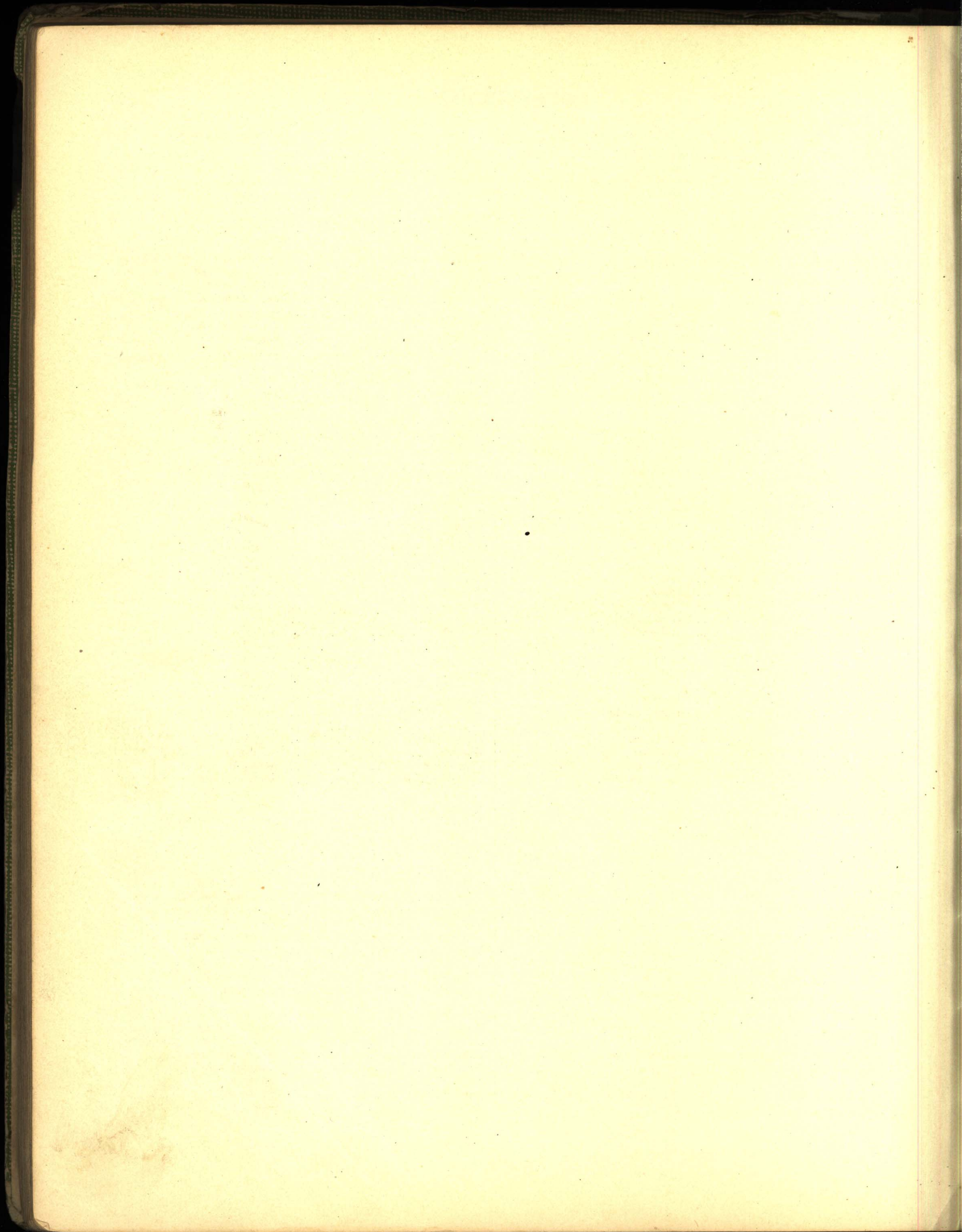
NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.
Odessa	ō-des'-sa.
Oesel	ū'-sel.
Ohio	ō-hī'-ō.
Okanagan	ō-kan-ah'-gān.
Okhotsk	ō-kōtsk'.
Oklahoma	ōk-lah-hō'-mah.
Omaha	ō'-mah haw.
Onega	ō-nē'-ga.
Ontario	ōn-tā'-rī-ō.
Oregon	ōr'-e-gon.
Orillia	ō-ril'-lī-ah.
Orinoco	ō-rin-ō'-kō.
Orleans	or'-lē-anz.
Oromocto	or-ō-mūk'-to.
Orontes	ō-rōn'-tēz.
Oshawa	ōsh'-ah-wah.
Ottawa	ot'-tah-wah.
Ouse	ōōz.
Pacific	pah-sīf'-ik.
Padua	pād'-ū-a.
Palermo	pā-lēr'-mō.
Palk	pawk.
Pamir	pah-mēr'.
Panama	pan-a-mah'.
Papua	pap'-oo-a.
Para	pah-rah'.
Paraguay	pah-ra-gwā'.
Paramaribo	pār-a-mār'-ī-bō.
Parana	pah-rah'-nah.
Paria	pah'-re-ah.
Paris	pār'-is.
Passamaquoddy	pas-sā-mā-kwod'-dy.
Passaro	pahs-sah'-rō.
Patagonia	pāt-ā-gō'-nī-a.
Pechili	pā-chē-lē'.
Pekin	pē-kin'.
Pembina	pēm'-bē-na.
Pennine	pen'-nīn.
Pennsylvania	pen-sīl-vā'-nī-a.
Penobscot	pen-ōb'-skōt.
Pensacola	pen-sah-kō'-la.
Peoria	pē ō'-rī-ah.
Perekop	pā-rā-kop'.
Pernambuco	pēr-nām-bōō'-kō.
Persia	per'-shā (per'-zhā).
Peru	pē-roo'.
Petitcodiac	pet'-ē-kō-dē-ak'.
Philadelphia	fil-ā-del'-fe-a.
Philippine	fil'-ip-pin.
Pico	pē'-kō.
Pictou	pik'-tō.
Pisa	pē'-zah.
Plymouth	plim'-ūth.
Pnompenh	p'nōm-pēn'.
Pomona	pō-mō'-na.
Pompeii	pom-pā'-yē.
Pontiac	pōn'-te-ak.
Popocatepetl	pō-pō-kah-tā-pēt'l.
Portage la Prairie	pōr-tazh' lah prā'-rē.
Portneuf	pōrt-nūf'.
Porto Rico	pōr'-tō rē'-kō.
Portugal	pōr'-tū-gal.
Potomac	pō-tō'-mak.
Potosi	pō-tō-sē, or po-tō'se.
Prague	prāg.
Pretoria	prē-tō'-re-ah.
Prussia	prūsh'-ā.
Pueblo	pwēb'-lō.
Punta Arenas	poon'-tah ah-rā'-nahs.
Putumayo	poo-too-mī'-ō.
Pyrenees	pīr'-ē-nēz.

NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.
Quaco	kwaw'-kō.
Qu'Appelle	kāp-pél'.
Quebec	kwē-bék'.
Quesnel	ken'-nel.
Quinte	kwīn-tā'.
Quito	kē'-to.
Racine	rah-sēn'.
Raleigh	raw'-lē.
Rangun	rahn-goon'.
Rappahannock	rap-pah-hān'-nūk.
Reading	rēd'-ing.
Reggio	rēd'-jō.
Renous	rē-nōōs'.
Restigouche	rēs-tī-goōsh'.
Rheims	rēmz.
Rhine	rīn.
Rhodes	rōdz.
Richelieu	rē-shē-loo'.
Richibucto	rīsh-ī-būk'-to.
Rideau	rē-dō'.
Riga	rē'-gah.
Rimouski	rē-moōs'-kē.
Rio Grande	rē'-o grahn'-dā.
Rio Janeiro	rē'-o zhah-nā'-ro.
Rio Negro	rē'-o nā'-grō.
Ripon	rīp'-ūn.
Riviera	rē-vē-ā'-rah.
Riviere du Loup	rē-ve-ār' doo-loo'.
Roanoke	rō-ā-nōk'.
Rochdale	rōtch'-dāle.
Rochefort	rōsh-for'.
Rochelle	rō-shēl'.
Rochester	rōtch'-ēs-tēr.
Rosario	rō-sah'-rē-o.
Rossignol	rōs-sēn-yōl'.
Rothsay	rōth'-sā.
Rouen	roo'-ēn.
Roumania	roo-mā'-nī-a.
Russia	rūsh'-a.
Saale	zah'-leh.
Saco	saw'-kō.
Sacramento	sāk-rah-men'-to.
Saghalien	sah-gah-lēn'.
Saginaw	sag'-in-aw.
Saguenay	sag'-ē-nā'.
Sahara	sā-hah'-rah.
Saigon	sī-gōn'.
St. Augustine	sānt aw'-gūs-tēn.
St. Bernard	sānt bēr'-nard.
St. Croix	sānt kroi'.
St. Denis	sahn deh-nē'.
St. Elias	sānt ē-lī'-ās.
St. Helena	sānt hē-lē'-na.
St. Hyacinthe	sānt hī'-a sinth.
St. Louis	sānt loo'-is.
St. Malo	sahn mah-lō'.
St. Maurice	sahn mō-rēs'.
St. Pierre	sahn pē-ār'.
St. Roque	sānt rōk.
Salamanca	sal-a-man'-ka.
Salisbury	sawlz'-bēr-e.
Saloniki	sah-lō-nē'-kē.
Samoa	sah-mō'-ā.
Samothraki	sah-mō-thrah'-kē.
San Blas	sahn blahs'.
San Diego	sahn dē-ā'-go.
San Francisco	sahn frān-sis'-ko.
San Jose	sahn hō-sā'.
San Juan	sahn hoo-ahn'.
Santa Fe	sahn'-tah fā'.

NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.
Santiago	sahn-tē-ah'-go.
Saone	sōn.
Saskatchewan	sās-katch'-ē-wōn.
Saskatoon	sās-kā-toon'.
Sault Ste. Marie	sōo sānt mā'-rē.
Savannah	sah-vān'-nah.
Scatari	skat-ā-rē'.
Scheldt	skēlt.
Schenectady	skē-nēk'-tā-dē.
Schleswig Holstein	shlāz'-vig hōl'-stīn.
Schoodic	skoo'-dik.
Schuylkill	skōōl'-kīl.
Scilly	sil'-lē.
Scutari	skoo'-tah-rē.
Sedan	sē-dān'.
Seine	sān.
Senegal	sen-ē-gawl'.
Seoul	seh-oōl'.
Severn	sev'-ēr.
Seville	sē-vil' (sev'-il).
Seychelles	sā-shēl'.
Shanghai	shang-hī'.
Shawenigan	shah-wēn-i-gān'.
Shediac	shēd-e-ak'.
Shemogue	shem-ō-gwē'.
Shenandoah	shen-an-dō'-ah.
Shepody	shēp'-ō-dē.
Shippegan	ship pē gān'.
Shubenacadie	shōō-ben-āk'-ā-dē.
Shuswap	shūs'-wap.
Siam	sī-am' (sē am').
Sicamous	sik'-ā moos.
Sicily	sis'-ī-lē.
Sierra Leone	se-ēr'-rah lē-ō'-nē.
Sierra Madre	se-ēr'-rah mah'-drā.
Sierra Morena	se-ēr'-rah mō-rā'-nah.
Sierra Nevada	se-ēr'-rah ne-vah'-dah.
Silesia	sī-lē'-shī-a.
Sinai	sī'-nā (sī'-nī).
Singapore	sing-gā-pōr.
Sioux	sōō.
Skager Rack	skag'-er rak'.
Skagway	skag'-way.
Sligo	slī'-go.
Slocan	slō-kān'.
Smyna	smūr'-na.
Socotra	sō kō'-trah.
Sofia	so-fē'-ah (so'-fē-yah).
Solent	so'-lēt.
Somaliland	so-mah'-lē-land.
Sorel	sō-rēl'.
Soudan	sōō-dahn'.
Soulanges	sōō-lahnzh'.
Souris	sōō'-rē.
Spey	spā.
Spokane	spō-kān'.
Sporades	spōr'-ā-dēz.
Spre	sprā.
Stanovoi	stah-no-voi'.
Stettin	stēt-tēn'.
Steveston	stēvs'-ton.
Stewiacke	stew'-ē-ak.
Stikine	stīk'-ēn'.
Stockholm	stōk'-hōlm.
Stour	stoōr.
Strasbourg	strahs'-boōrg.
Stromboli	strōm'-bō-lē.
Stuttgart	stūt'-gahrt.
Suakin	swah'-kēn.
Suez	sōō-ez'.
Suleiman	sōō-lah-mahn'.
Sumatra	sōō-mah'-trā.

NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.
Susquehanna	sūs-kwě-han'-nah.
Swansea	swon'-sē.
Swaziland	swah'-zē-land.
Sweden	swē'-dēn.
Sydney	sīd'-nē.
Syracuse	sīr'-ah-kūs.
Syr Daria	sīr dahr'-ī-ah.
Syria	sīr'-i-a.
Tabusintac	tab-ū-sin-tak'.
Tacoma	tah-kō'-mah.
Tadousac	tah-doo-sāk'.
Tagus	tā'-gūs.
Tahiti	tah-hē'-tē.
Tallahasse	tāl-lā-hās'-se.
Tampico	tām-pē'-kō.
Tananarivo	tah-nah-nah-rē'-vo.
Tanganyika	tahn-gahn-yē'-kah.
Tangier	tahn-jēr'.
Tantramer	tan-trah-mahr'.
Tasmania	taz-mā'-nī-a.
Tatamagouche	tat'-mah-goosh.
Taunton	tahn'-tūn.
Taurus	taw'-rūs.
Teheran	tē-hēr-ahn'.
Tehuantepec	tā-wahn-tā-pēk'.
Temiscaming	tēm-is'-kā-ming.
Temiscouata	tēm-is-kwaw'-tah.
Teneriffe	tēn-ēr-if'.
Tennessee	tēn-nēs-sē'.
Terrebonne	tēr-bōn'.
Terre Haute	tēr'-rē hōt.
Thames	tēmz.
Thebes	thēbz.
Theiss	tice.
Thian Shan	tē-ahn-shahn'.
Tiber	tī'-ber.
Tibet	tīb'-et (tīb-et').
Ticino	tē-chē'-no.
Tierra del Fuego	tē-ēr'-rah dēl fwā'-go.
Tigris	tī'-gris.
Timor	tē-mōr'.
Titicaca	tit-ē-kah'-kah.
Tobago	tō-bā'-go.
Tobique	tō'-beek.
Tokio	tō'-kē-o.
Tonquin	tōn-kēn'.
Tormentine	tor-men-tīne.
Torquay	tor-kē'.
Toulon	toō-lōn'.
Toulouse	toō-looz'.
Tours	toōr.
Tracadie	trak'-a-dē.
Trafalgar	traf-al-gahr' (trā-fahl'-gahr).
Transvaal	trans-vahl'.
Trieste	trē-ēst'.
Tripoli	trīp'-o-lē.
Trois Pistoles	trwah pēs-tōl'
Trondhjem	trōn'-yēm.
Troyes	trwah.
Tunis	tū'-nis.
Turkestan	toōr-kēs-tahn'.
Tyrol	tīr'-ol.
Tyrone	tī-rōnē'.
Ucayali	oō-kah-yah'-lē, or oo-kī-ah'-
Uganda	oō-gahn'-da. [lē.]
Uist	wist.
Ulleswater	ūlz'-waw-ter.
Ulster	ūl'-ster.
Ungava	ung-gah'-vah.
Upsala	ūp-sah'-lah.
Ural	ū'-ral.

NAME.	PRONUNCIATION.
Uruguay	ū'-roō-gwā (oō-roō-gwī').
Utah	ū'-tah.
Utica	ū'-tī-ka.
Utrecht	ū'-trēkt.
Valdai	vahl-dī'.
Valencia }	vah'-len'-shī-a.
Valentia }	
Valenciennes	vah-lēn-si-enz' (vah-lahn-si-
Valparaiso	vahl-pah-rī'-so. [en'].
Vancouver	van-koo'-ver.
Van Diemen's	van dē'-menz.
Vaudreuil	vō-drool' (vō-drū'-y).
Venezuela	vēn-ē-zwē'-lah.
Venice	vēn'-iss.
Vera Cruz	vēr'-ah krōōz.
Vercheres	vēr-shār'.
Vermont	vēr-mōnt'.
Versailles	vēr-sālz (vēr-sah'y).
Verte	vērt.
Vesuvius	vē-sū'-vī-ūs.
Vienna	vē-ēn'-nah.
Vindhya	vind'-yah.
Vistula	vīs'-tū-la.
Vladivostok	vlah-dē-vōs-tōk'.
Volga	vōl'-gah.
Vosges	vōzh.
Wabash	waw'-bāsh.
Wabigoon	waw'-bī-goōn.
Wallachia	wōl-lā'-kī-a.
Warsaw	wawr'-saw.
Warwick	wawr'-rik (wawr'-wik).
Wasatch	waw'-satch.
Washademoak	wōsh-ā-dē-moik'.
Wear	wēr.
Weimar	wī'-mahr (vī-mahr).
Welland	wel'-land.
Wener	wā'-ner (vē'-ner).
Weser	wa'-zer (vā'-zer).
Wetaskiwin	we tas'-kī-wīn.
Wetter	wet'-ter (vēt'-ter).
Whycocomagh	why-kog'-o-mah.
Wichita	witch'-ī-taw.
Wiesbaden	wēs bah'-den.
Windsor	win'-zūr.
Winnipeg	win'-nī-peg.
Winnipegosis	win-nī-pē-gō'-sis.
Wisconsin	wis-kon'-sin.
Wollaston	wōl'-las-ton.
Woolwich	woōl'-itch (wool-ij).
Worcester	woōs'-ter.
Wyoming	wī-ō'-ming.
Yablonoi	yah-blo-noi'.
Yakutsk	yah-koōtsk'.
Yamaska	yah-mahs'-kah.
Yang-tse Kiang	yāng-tsē-kī-ang'.
Yenisei	yēn-ē-sā'-ē.
Yokohama	yō-kō-hah'-mah.
Yosemite	yō-sēm'-ī-tē.
Youghal	yawl (yōh'-hāl).
Yucatan	yoō-kah-tahn'.
Yukon	yoō'-kōn.
Zaandam	zahn-dahm'.
Zacatecas	zahn-ā-tā'-kas.
Zambesi	zahn-bā'-zē (zahn-bē'-zē).
Zante	zāhn'-tē.
Zanzibar	zahn-zī-bahr'.
Zealand	zē'-land.
Zuider Zee	zī'-der zē.
Zurich	zoō'-rik.



BRITISH COLUMBIA SUPPLEMENT.

Name and Early History.—Long before any information about the Great River of the West had been gathered, its existence had been shrewdly guessed at, and there was a tradition among the American Indians of the interior that such a river flowed into the Pacific Ocean.

Carver, an early traveller, refers to the "Oregon River," about which he had heard from the natives, who

said it flowed westward into a sea beyond the Shining Mountains, and had its source near the headwaters of the three other rivers that diverged from the same region in different directions. But in reality there was no such river as Carver describes, yet the territory westward through which this river was supposed to

flow came to be known as "Oregon" or the "Oregon Territory," a country without positive limits, vague and undefined.

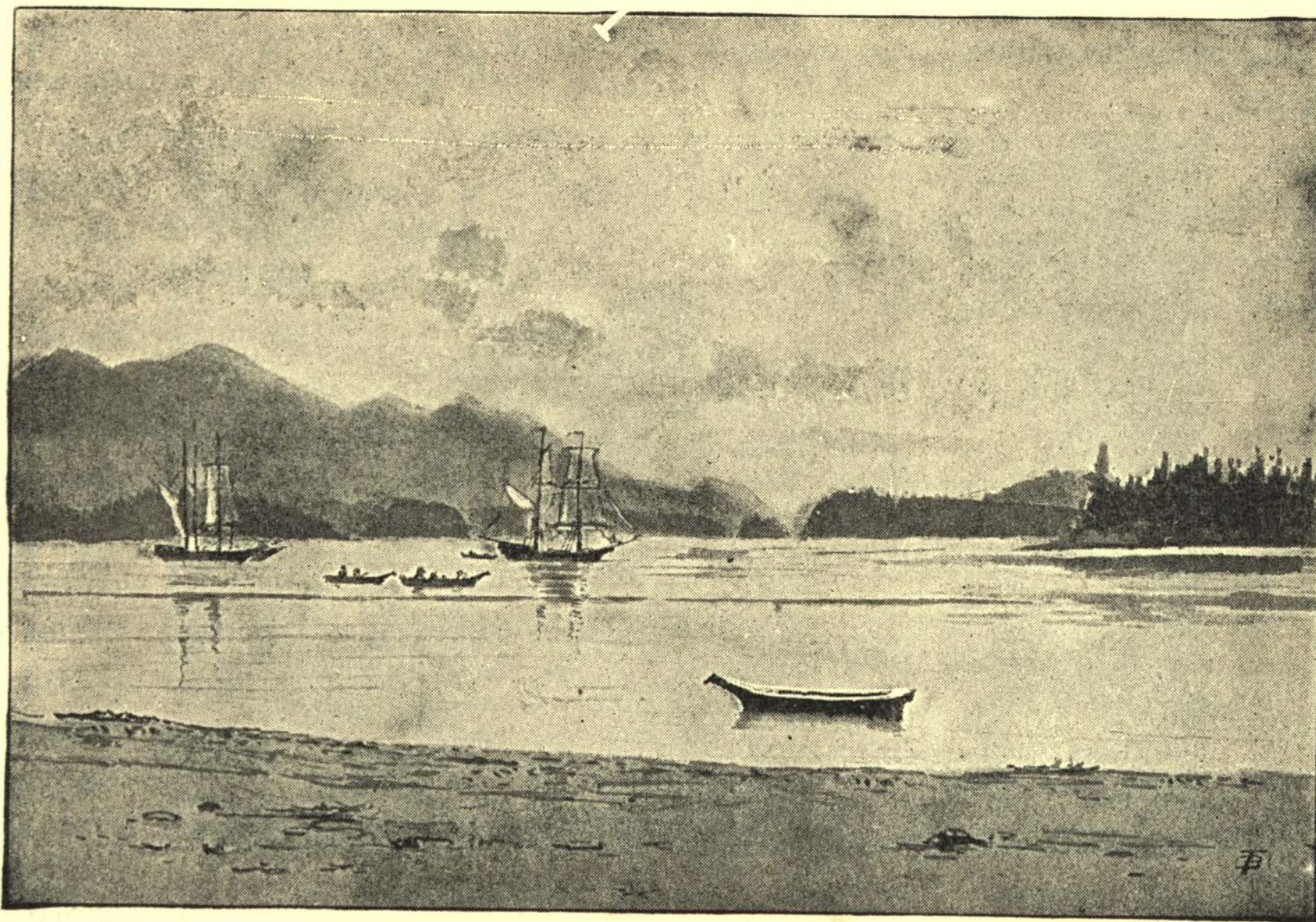
In 1793 Captain Gray, of Boston, discovered a river which had been previously sighted by the Spaniards. Up this stream he sailed and named it the Columbia, in honor of his ship. This river makes a big bend through British Columbia before entering the United States, and empties into the Pacific Ocean through the Oregon Territory, which then included a large portion of what is now British Columbia.

To the north-east lay a vast district which the Traders of the Northwest Fur Company entered through the Peace River Country and called New Caledonia, on account of its resemblance to some parts of Scotland.

But gradually the whole region west of the Rocky Mountains came to be known in a general way as Columbia, from the river of that name, and later on when the 49th parallel was made the national boundary line, the country to the north was called British Columbia, and the names Washington and Oregon were given to the territories south of the boundary.

Pacific Coast Exploration.—For several

hundred years the chief incentive to the exploration of the Pacific Coast was the hope of finding a Northwest Passage which would afford a direct waterway from Europe to China and India. Columbus, indeed, thought that he had landed on one of the islands near India; and the Lachine, now the St. Lawrence



Port Cox, Meares' Ships at Anchor, 1788.

of Eastern Canada, was so called because it was believed to lead to China. The Pacific Coast was first explored in the hope that navigators would be able to sail back to the Atlantic through this fabled Northwest passage. Thus the discovery and settlement of British Columbia followed the many fruitless attempts made to find a shorter route to the East. But in the end this northward passage was found to be impracticable through the frozen Arctic; and only one man, Captain McClure, after enduring extreme hardship and suffering, ever succeeded in sailing quite through the northern passage.

Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Panama in 1513, and was the first white man to behold the immense Pacific spreading before him.

In 1520, Magellan, a Portuguese, employed by Spain,

rounded Cape Horn ; and the Spaniards, leading spirits in the discoveries of those times, waged cruel wars with the natives and soon conquered Mexico and Peru. Cortez, a noted Spanish adventurer, discovered California in 1537, and in 1578 came the famous Sir Francis Drake in quest of Spanish galleons with their rich booty. Wishing to avoid the enemy, he sailed far north on his way home, vainly attempting to find another route, and it is conjectured that he sighted the shores of British Columbia. In 1587, Cavendish, another notable British sea-dog, visited these coasts and ravished the Spanish ships as he went.

In 1592, Juan de Fuca, a Greek pilot, employed by Spain, is supposed to have discovered and explored the strait that now bears his name. Two hundred years afterwards, Captain Barkley, after whom Barkley Sound is named, whose wife was the first white woman on the Coast, re-discovered the strait and confirmed the story of the Greek pilot.

Later Voyages.—

In 1774 Juan Perez discovered the Queen Charlotte Islands ; but, with slight exceptions, no important discoveries were made for 150 years after the early Spanish voyages. In 1778 the famous Captain Cook, on his third trip round the world, reached Nootka on the west coast of Vancouver Island, and sailed as far north as Mt. St. Elias in Alaska. This mountain had been previously discovered in 1748 by a man in the Russian service named Bering, after whom Bering Strait and Bering Sea are called. With other Russian navigators he shares the honor of discovering Alaska, then called Russian America, and of establishing fur-trading posts there. That territory was offered for sale by Russia to Great Britain but refused ; and subsequently, in 1867, was sold to the United States. Out of this transfer grew the Bering Sea and Alaska Boundary questions, which have caused some trouble in recent years. Captain Cook, on his way home to England, was treacherously killed by natives at the Sandwich Islands. After him came in quick succession, Spanish, British, Ameri-

can and French ships to trade along the Coast and make further explorations.

At Nootka Captain Meares established a trading post which the Spaniards seized, and thus caused a serious difficulty between England and Spain, known as the "Nootka Affair," which was finally settled in favor of Great Britain. The first ship launched on the Pacific was built by Captain Meares, at Nootka, and called the "North-West."

In 1792 Captain Vancouver came to this Coast on business connected with the Nootka trouble, and remained three years. To his efforts it was due that the coast of British Columbia was surveyed and named, and in a large measure that the country came quietly into the possession of Great Britain. Captain Vancouver, on his charts, gave to numerous places the names of

his friends, and thus we have Burrard Inlet, Howe Sound, Jarvis Inlet and many others besides Vancouver Island called after himself. For many years ships continued to carry on the fur trade, but no permanent settlements were made on the British Columbia Coast until Sir James Douglas, Chief Factor of the Hudson's Bay Company, founded Victoria in 1842-3. The employees of this Company, together with those of the Northwest Fur Company,

were in reality the pioneers of the country.



Launch of the "North-West," built by Capt. Meares, first vessel built on North-West Coast.

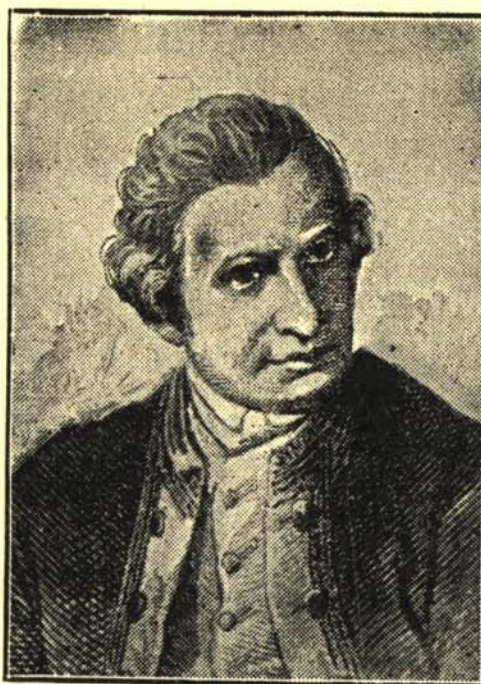
Fur-Trading Companies.—The history of British Columbia begins properly in 1793 with the overland journey of Sir Alexander Mackenzie, an intrepid explorer who crossed the continent from Montreal in the service of the Northwest Fur Company and reached the Pacific near Bella Coola, and was the first man to make the overland trip. In his search for the Northwest Passage he followed the Mackenzie River down to the Arctic Ocean and satisfied himself that the Pacific Ocean could not be reached by that water route. Turning south he reached the head waters of the Fraser River, and travelling due west came to the Pacific. A few years later Simon Fraser, another member of the North-

west Fur Company, followed the Fraser to its mouth. Thus, Sir Alexander Mackenzie opened the way through New Caledonia, and fur traders gradually spread their posts throughout the interior and down into Washington and Oregon.

In 1821 the two great companies, formerly bitter enemies, united their interests and the trade was carried on both by sea and land. Ships rounded Cape Horn for the Coast, and in 1825-6 a chief trading post was established at Fort Vancouver on the Columbia River, near the present city of Portland, Oregon. But the Company looked forward to the fixing of the boundary line at the 49th parallel, and moved its headquarters to Victoria. Many years before this a long line of palisaded forts and posts extended northwest along the Coast and throughout the vast interior to Hudson's Bay. This great line of communication brought in supplies and carried out vast quantities of furs, and the perfection of the whole system was as wonderful as the immense territory covered by its operations. The Company also established farms near Victoria, on Puget Sound and in the Willamette Valley, and from these they sent produce to Russia, China and the Sandwich Islands.

Earliest Form of Government.—The earliest form of civil government in Vancouver Island was established in 1859 by the Hudson's Bay Company, which had proprietary rights over the island. Richard Blanchard as first Governor came over from England in 1850, but soon afterwards was succeeded by Sir James Douglas, the Chief Factor of the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1670 this great corporation was granted letters patent, and by its charter had an absolute grant of Rupert's Land in the Northwest Territory. Subsequently, but long after, they got possession of Vancouver Island in the same way. The Mainland and the rest of the Northwest country not owned by the Company was under the direct control of the Crown and was known as Indian Territory; but the Company had exclusive rights to carry on trade with the Indians everywhere within its known limits.

Population and Progress.—In 1856 the first Legislative Assembly was elected for Vancouver Island, and the first Parliament, of which Hon. Dr. Helmcken was Speaker, sat that year. There were then in the colony very few settlers except Hudson's Bay employees and officials, and the population increased very slowly indeed. But in 1858 the gold



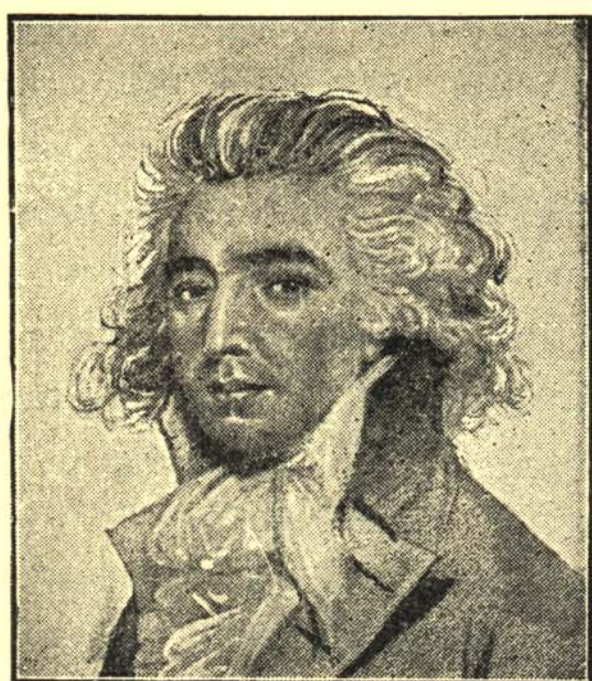
Capt. Cook, 1787.

fever suddenly brought a large population, and the following year the Hudson's Bay Company gave up Vancouver Island for a consideration. In that year the Island and Mainland of British Columbia became separate Crown Colonies, with separate Governments. Victoria was capital of Vancouver Island, and New Westminster, so named by the Queen and thus sometimes called "the Royal City," was the capital of British Columbia. The colonies remained separate until 1866, when they united under the name of British Columbia, with Victoria as the capital.

In 1871 the Colony entered the Canadian Confederation, and one of the principal conditions upon which British Columbia became a province of Canada was that a railway should be built to connect it with the Atlantic seaboard. Later, the Canadian Pacific Railway was begun, and was completed in 1885. Since then the progress of the country has been rapid.

During the early Colonial days the chief officials were sent out from England. The most prominent of these were Sir Matthew Bailie Begbie, for many years Chief Justice of British Columbia, and Lieutenant-Colonel Moody, Lieutenant-Governor and Commander of Her Majesty's forces. These forces consisted of a corps of Royal Engineers and a company of Sappers and Miners, who came by ship in 1859 to New Westminster, and carried on the construction of roads and other public works. A mint was established to coin the gold, but it was never operated. In those days each colony had its own customs' tariff and its own post-office service. It cost about 40 cents to send a letter from Victoria to England, and about one dollar to some parts of the province. The Government consisted of three branches: The Governor, the Executive Council appointed by the Crown, and the Legislative Assembly elected by the people. Vancouver Island and British Columbia were then what are called Crown Colonies, in which the control of affairs by the Crown was much greater than it is to-day under Responsible Government.

The Native Races.—In the early times the Indians formed the only settled population of the country, and in British Columbia their number was probably from 40,000 to 50,000, while the entire white population



Capt. Meares, 1788.

at the time of Confederation, did not exceed 10,000. But owing to war among the tribes, and the ravages of small-pox and other diseases, the Indian population has been reduced by about one-half.

Among them we find a general resemblance with certain marked differences. The Kootenay Indian resembles closely the typical Red Man of the plains, and is tall, lithe and muscular, with elongated face, aquiline nose and black, piercing eyes; quick, agile and restless, his frame is built to run, to ride, and to see and smell at long range. On the other hand the Siwash (a corruption of the French word *sauvage*, meaning savage, an Indian), the common type of British Columbia Indian, is short and thick-set, long in body and short in legs. His flat face is big and square, and his head sits close to his heavy shoulders that surmount a capacious chest and well-developed arms. His body is exactly suited to his occupation of canoeing and fishing, for the canoe is to the Siwash what the horse is to the Indian hunter of the plains. But in the remote interior these two contrasted types become more nearly alike. The Siwashes are the higher class, more docile and settled in their homes, and owing to the wise policy of the Hudson's Bay Company in dealing with them, they easily submitted with good grace to the rule of the white men.

Classification and Present Condition.—The Indians of the Coast are supposed to be of Asiatic origin, and the whole race is made up of many tribes with numerous dialects and languages. Six leading divisions can be traced, but no very exact classification is possible. Their social life is simple, and among themselves they retain tribal distinctions, and are governed by tribal laws, while their outward relations to the community are regulated by a special law called the Indian Act. Their old occupation of fur hunting is largely gone, for, although the Hudson's Bay Company still maintains its northern posts and buys and sells furs, that corporation is now chiefly concerned with store keeping. Most of the tribes have now come under the influence of civilization through the efforts of missionaries and through contact with white men, and earn their own living in various ways, such as fishing, logging and

packing goods across the country. They are the wards of the Dominion Government, and reservations of land are set apart for the various tribes, upon which they reside; but, being of a superior class they are self-supporting and independent and get no annuities or other assistance, such as the Indians of other parts of the Dominion receive.

Their art is shown chiefly in the totems and engravings of the Haidas and is suggestive of Chinese and Japanese ideas of decoration. Numerous mounds containing human remains and relics seem to suggest that the Indians were preceded many years ago by another race of people, but of this we have, as yet, no positive evidence.

Physical Conditions.—Roughly speaking, British Columbia contains from 380,000 to 400,000 square miles, and forms an immense parallelogram or "long square" about 900 miles long and about 425 miles wide, running north-west and south-east. The main line of elevation in North America is known as the Rocky Mountains, and to the east are the vast plains or prairies hundreds of miles wide, including Manitoba and the Northwest Territories. To the west of the Rocky Mountains, which are about 60 miles wide, are several broken or shorter ranges of mountains, and between these are elevated table-lands or plateaus, long valleys and numerous river or lake stretches, that form a valuable system of inland water-ways. In some places we find rolling plains and low hills, covered with clumps of trees and bunch grass, which give the extensive cattle ranges of the interior. In other places we have row upon row of steep, forbidding mountains with rugged canyons, deep river-beds and long narrow lakes between them, the slopes of which are sometimes rocky and barren or more often densely timbered. On the whole the scenery is on the majestic scale, and compares with Switzerland for beauty and grandeur.

Mountain Ranges.—The central portion of the Dominion may be regarded as a great shallow trough of which, after three successive steps, the western edge is made by the Rocky Mountains. From this western edge of the great plains stretches the great Cordillera belt across British Columbia to the Pacific with an average breadth of about 400 miles between the 49th and the 56th parallel, beyond which it has not been completely explored. Between these limits the mountain belt is composed of four great ranges which run nearly parallel, with north-west and south-west bearings.

The southern part of the Rocky Mountain range is about 60 miles across, but near the Peace River it decreases to 40 miles or less. Near the 49th parallel several summits exceed 10,000 feet, and in the vicinity of the Bow River, Kicking Horse Pass, and the headwaters of the North Saskatchewan and the Athabasca the range appears to culminate. Extensive snow-fields occur in many places, glaciers appear, and Mount Murchison is supposed to be 13,500 feet in height. Northward the mountains grow lower and lower till they are mere hills that slope down to the Arctic plain near the mouth of the Mackenzie River. Generally speaking, these mountains are heavily timbered and on the western slopes the forests are very dense owing to the greater rainfall. The principal passes are important and worthy of special mention in order of elevation, namely: South Kootenay Pass, North Kootenay Pass, Crowsnest Pass, Kicking Horse Pass, Athabasca Pass, Yellow Head Pass, Smoky River Pass, and Peace River Valley—varying from 6,750 to 2,000 feet.

The western edge of the Rocky Mountain range is defined by a very remarkable straight and wide valley that can be traced from the 49th parallel to the headwaters of the Peace River—a distance of 700 miles. This valley is occupied by the upper portions of several of the largest rivers, the Kootenay, Columbia, Fraser, Parsnip and Findlay. To the west of this valley rises the next mountain region which is about 80 miles in width. It is composed of a number of clearly-defined ranges, the Selkirk, Purcell, Columbia and Cariboo Mountains, which are often referred to collectively as the Gold Ranges. North of the Cariboo district near the headwaters of the Peace it dies away completely not far from the 54th parallel.

Westward of this system lies the Interior Plateau of British Columbia, which is about 100 miles wide and about 3,500 feet above the sea. It is highest at the south, and in the north falls gradually towards the large lakes and the low country about the source of the Peace River. This plateau is dissected by deep and trough-like valleys, but in some places is pretty level and uniform. A little north of the 55th parallel it is practically closed by the ends of several cross mountain ranges, some of which reach an elevation of 8,000 feet. Its southern limit is formed by a second transverse mountain zone that nearly coincides with the 49th parallel and is traversed by several river valleys such as the Okanagan. This southern part of the plateau includes much open country and forms the best grazing

region of the province. It contains some good agricultural land, but irrigation is generally necessary on account of the deficient rainfall. In the north there is more rain and the plateau is mostly covered with forests.

To the west of the Interior Plateau rise the Coast Range Mountains, which are quite distinct from the Cascade range of Washington and Oregon. Their average width is about 100 miles, they have lofty peaks 6,000 or 7,000, and some over 9,000 feet high, and towards the north there are many large glaciers. This range robs the winds from the Pacific of their moisture and causes the heavy rainfall of the Coast region, and the rugged mountains themselves are generally covered with dense forests, especially on the sea-ward side.

The fourth great mountain axis has been partly submerged and may be called the Vancouver Range. It constitutes Vancouver Island, the Queen Charlotte Islands, the peninsular portion of Alaska, the Alaska Islands, and is continued southward in the Olympic Mountains of the United States. The highest mountain on Vancouver Island has an elevation of 7,484 feet above the sea, and several summits in the Queen Charlotte Islands exceed 4,000 feet. The coasts of Scotland, Norway and Greenland are analogous, but on a much smaller scale. The most remarkable features of the coast are its deeps fiords and passages bordered by lofty rugged mountain walls that for about 2,000 miles give them a grandeur all their own.

How Minerals Were Formed.—This earth is supposed to have been at first a molten sphere, which, in the course of time, became so cooled on its outer surface as to form a solid outer crust.

As the cooling continued, the interior part became smaller and smaller, and the outer shell, in fitting itself to its diminished contents, became creased and wrinkled on the surface and thrown up into ridges; that is, mountain ranges and hills.

The low-lying lands became in time covered with water, condensed from the surrounding atmosphere; while the higher portions, exposed to the action of the atmosphere and other agencies, disintegrated and crumbled, and the small particles so produced were washed down by the heavy rains to the lower levels, already covered by water, where the particles arranged themselves according to their weight—the gravels settling first, the sand next, while the finest particles were carried further by the water, and finally deposited as clay.



Capt. Geo. Vancouver,
1792.

These sediments from the waters were deposited in great layers under the water and eventually hardened into strata, or beds of conglomerate, sandstone or shale, according to their constituent parts, and form what are known as *sedimentary* rocks.

After animal life had appeared in the waters, great layers of shells accumulated in the bottoms of seas, which upon hardening became *limestone*, which is also a sedimentary rock formation.

In the course of time vegetation appeared on the land surfaces of the earth, and immense forests grew and decayed. Their vegetable matter, washed by water into basins or lakes, accumulated and finally hardened into coal.

Subsequent shrinking of the earth's solid crust caused movements in these sedimentary beds—bending, breaking and uptilting them, often into huge ridges, which are called *mountain ranges*.

Such movements caused weak spots in the earth's surface, through which the molten mass in the centre of the earth found its way up through the sedimentary and other rocks, sometimes filling up cracks, and, chilling there, formed dykes. Sometimes flowing over the surface for many square miles, and, chilling, formed what are called *volcanic* rocks, and again sometimes coming up in great half-molten masses, not sufficiently liquid to flow, formed mountains and ranges of mountains of igneous rock.

Whenever such outbursts from the centre of the earth occurred, they were accompanied by gas, steam, and acid waters, all of which frequently carried metallic mineral in suspension, and entering into the cracks or fissures of the solid rocks, were there chilled and so forced to deposit their minerals in these cracks, which we call *mineral veins*. Or, these acid waters, coming in contact with limestone or other soluble rocks, dissolved them and deposited the mineral in place of the lime. These are called *replacement deposits*. These are only the most usual form of deposits—there are others. Mineral deposits are usually directly associated with volcanic disturbances.

British Columbia is almost wholly an area of such disturbances, and the distribution of mineral is wide-spread.

The mining of mineral from veins and deposits in solid rock formation is known as *lode mining*. There is another form of mining known as *placer mining*, by which gold is obtained in the metallic state, being found in gravels and clays left in ancient or modern stream-beds.

The erosion and disintegration of the surface, in time wore away mountains in which were veins and rocks containing gold and other minerals; and these, being heavier, settled to the bottom, while the current of water carried away the lighter rock matter. As this action continued for many ages—washing and re-washing the loose sedimentary deposits—the gold and heavy minerals always settling to the bottom, there resulted a concentration, in the stream-bottoms, of the gold, etc., which formed the placer deposits of Cariboo, Atlin, Yukon and other places. The placer miners re-wash these old stream-bottoms in water, the heavy metals and minerals settling to the bottom, while the gravel, sand and clay are washed away. Sometimes this washing is done by shovelling the gold-bearing gravels into a wooden sluice, or trough, in which a current of water is running which carries off the lighter materials, while the heavier drop to the bottom and are caught behind small projections, or wooden slats, fastened to the bottom of the sluice, and called riffles.

In hydraulic placer mining, the gravels, instead of being handled by hand, are washed down into the sluices by a very strong jet of water directed against the bank from the nozzle of a large pipe, some of these nozzles throwing over 3,000,000 gallons of water an hour.

The searching of the surface of the earth for valuable deposits of mineral is called *Prospecting*, and the extraction from the earth of such deposits, or ores, when found, is *Mining*.

Together, these form the *Industry of Mining*, while the extraction of the metals from the ores mined is called *Metallurgy*.

These allied industries are the most important in the Province of British Columbia.

Mining Resources.—Mining is one of the most important industries of the province. In Cariboo the Fraser River and its tributaries, in Yale the Similkameen and Rock Creek, and in Cassiar the Omineca, the Dease and their affluents yielded in the early days many millions of dollars' worth of placer gold. More recently gold, silver and copper in veins or quartz ledges have been discovered and developed in East and West Kootenai.

may, in the Boundary Country and in other parts. From 1885 to 1906 the product of vein mines rose from nothing to over \$17,500,000, and is constantly increasing. In every part of the province throughout Yale, Cariboo, Lillooet and Cassiar, and in Vancouver Island and up the Coast rich finds in all these metals have been made, and claims are being developed, so that British Columbia is likely to become one of the great mining countries in the world. Old placer diggings are being worked by hydraulic methods on a large scale and the output of gold will be greatly increased in that way. Coal mining on Vancouver Island has long been carried on; over a million tons are mined annually, and now large mines are also being worked in Crowsnest Pass and Nicola Valley, and coke is manufactured for use in smelters. There are various other coal measures in the province, which will be worked as soon as the railways reach them. Limestone, clay and all building stone belong to the owner of the land, or attach to what is known as the fee simple, but all the other minerals are retained by the Crown, the right to them not passing with the title to the land, and may be acquired by the prospector wherever found. Recently gold and other minerals have been found at Atlin in the northern part of the province, and have attracted a large population thither.

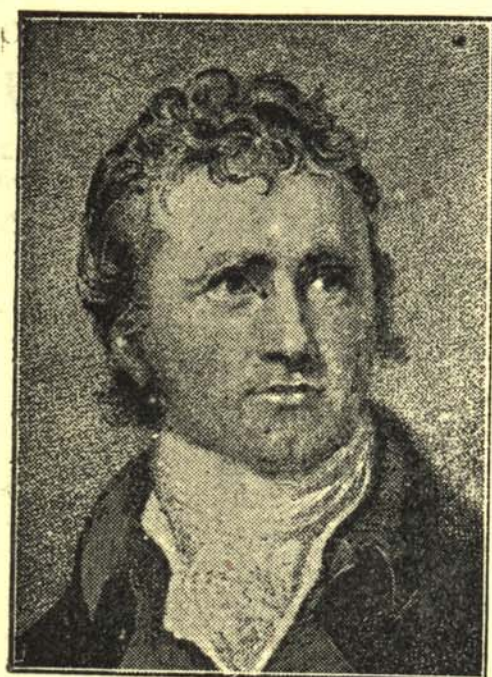
Form of Government.—The form of Government of British Columbia is similar in principle to that of the other provinces in Canada. The Government of Canada deals with affairs of general interest to the whole country, and the Provincial Government deals with local affairs, and has exclusive control over the property and private rights of the citizens of whatever nature. There is a Lieutenant-Governor, representing the Crown; an Executive Council of five or six members as the case may be; and a Legislative Assembly of 38 members elected by the people. Where the population is sufficient such as in the cities and towns, or in any particular rural district such as New Westminster District, municipalities are formed that control local affairs. Municipal Councils have control over certain matters, within the limit of their respective municipalities. The Legislative Assembly gives them power to pass by-laws regulating all such affairs, and in every school district there is a school board, or board of public school trustees, having charge of the school or schools in the district. The school law is passed by the Legislative Assembly, but the control of the educational system as a whole is vested in a Council of Public Instruction,

acting under regulations framed by the Executive Council of the Province or Government. At the head of the Department of Education is a Minister of Education, who is responsible to the Government for the educational policy of his department.

Responsible Government.—Similarly, there are in the Executive Council other Heads of Departments, namely, the Minister of Agriculture and Finance; the Minister of Mines; a Provincial Secretary; Chief Commissioner of Lands and Works; and an Attorney-General or legal adviser to the Crown. These Ministers are collectively responsible to the Legislature, which in turn has to answer to the people every four years or as often as there may be a general election. The Government must have the confidence and support of a majority of the Legislature in order to carry on the affairs of the province according to a code of political principles known as the British Constitution. In part our constitution is written or defined by law, and in part unwritten or made up of precedents which are rules established by custom and well-understood practice.

Political Divisions.—For greater convenience in carrying on the business of the country, the province is divided into a number of political divisions, and these again into electoral ridings, from which one or more members of Parliament are elected. The chief divisions on the mainland are: New Westminster, Yale, Kootenay, Lillooet, Cariboo and Cassiar; and on Vancouver Island, Victoria, Esquimalt, Cowichan, Nanaimo and Alberni. Some of these are subdivided into two or more ridings, as populations and other conditions warrant; and again some of the 28 electoral ridings have one representative and others two or more. The boundaries of these ridings, however, are subject to change, and the number may be increased or diminished according to the will of the Legislative Assembly. This is done by an Act of Parliament, known as a Redistribution Measure, which adjusts the representation according to population and other conditions. Where population is increasing rapidly and new districts are opening up, it is necessary to re-arrange the boundaries frequently. Of course, in a province like British Columbia, with large areas, a scattered population and a variety of resources somewhat unevenly distributed, it is not possible to divide it up strictly according to population.

Judicial Districts.—For the administration of justice and other judicial purposes, there are seven counties: Victoria, Nanaimo, Vancouver, New Westminster, Yale, Kootenay and Cariboo. In each of these counties



Sir Alex. Mackenzie,
1793.

are Government offices in which the departments of the Government are represented locally by Government agents, gold commissioners, court registrars, mining recorders, assessors, etc., by whom the local business of the Government in different parts of the province is transacted. The seat of Government, or capital, is at Victoria, where the Parliament Buildings are located, and where the general business of the country is carried on by the respective departments and their officials.

The Climate.—It is difficult to describe the climate of British Columbia, because it varies very much throughout the wide extent of the province. It is everywhere milder and more equable than the climate east of the Rocky Mountains as far as the Maritime Provinces within the same limits of latitude. The local variations are mainly accounted for by the mountain ranges, and the comparative mildness by the influence of the sea and the ocean currents, which temper it considerably from the sea-coast even to the eastern boundary. The warm Japan current strikes the continent north of the Queen Charlotte Islands; but there is a return Arctic current nearer the Coast which renders the waters of British Columbia extremely cold and causes a condensation of the moisture borne eastward by the prevailing western winds, and produces the humidity of the atmosphere and the consequent large amount of rainfall received along the Coast. As the winds travel eastward they are gradually deprived of their moisture by contact with the mountains and become drier and drier. East of the Coast Range there is a dry belt, but the Selkirks being more elevated catch the higher currents of air, which discharge their moisture along the flanks of this range in copious falls of snow and rain. Beyond this again is a dry belt, so that there are really alternate wet and dry belts of climate.

The climate is therefore governed by "local conditions," a fact which accounts for the very hot and dry weather in some parts of Yale, Lillooet, Cariboo and Kootenay in summer, and for the sharp cold weather in winter with only a light snowfall; while in other parts there are rainy cool seasons in summer time and a very heavy snowfall in winter. These conditions are sometimes

found in places within a few miles of each other. Northward along the Coast the rainfall is heavier, and in Alaska it is almost continuous for the greater part of the year, though by reason of the warm Japan current which is here close to the Coast, the climate is very mild. In the northern part of the interior the climate becomes more subject to extremes of cold and heat. The humidity of the Coast has a wonderful effect on vegetation and it is everywhere abundant and luxuriant.

River Systems.—The Columbia River takes its rise near the boundary line and after running north makes a big bend to the south and empties into the Pacific between the States of Washington and Oregon. It has for tributaries in British Columbia the Kootenay and the Kettle Rivers. The next largest river is the Fraser, which rises in Cariboo near the Rocky Mountains in Yellow Head Pass. This stream goes north to the height of land, then turns sharply to the south for a long distance, being joined at Lytton by the Thompson River, when it enters into a canyon, a rugged gash in the mountains, and continues as far as Hope, when it turns westward and empties into the Gulf of Georgia at New Westminster. Its principal tributaries are the Thompson, the Chilcotin, the Blackwater, and the Nechako Rivers. Farther north the Skeena and the Nass flow westward into the Pacific near the north end of Queen Charlotte Islands. Still farther north the Stikine flows south-westward and enters the Pacific through Alaskan territory. In the river basins of British Columbia there are stretches of fine agricultural and pastoral lands, limited in extent as compared with the whole of the territory, but in the aggregate very considerable, and capable of supporting a large population. All the rivers are navigable for considerable distances, but as a rule are shallow and have rapids, so that only small flat-bottomed steamers can go up and down. The Fraser and Columbia are, however, larger than the others and have larger steamers on them. In the north-east corner of the province the Liard River and its tributaries, the Dease and the Nelson Rivers, take their rise. The Liard flows north-east into the Mackenzie, and the headwaters of the Yukon are also in British Columbia.

Fisheries.—Next in importance to mining comes the fishing industry. The waters of the sea all along the Coast are filled with food fishes, the principal of which are salmon, halibut, cod, herring, oolachan, smelt and sardine. There are six varieties of salmon, of which

the tyhee or spring salmon, the sockeye and the coho are used for canning. The salmon run up the rivers and inlets at certain seasons and are caught in nets and seines and put up in tins at the canneries on the Fraser, Skeena and Nass, and on several inlets of the Coast. Salmon canning was begun about 1876 and has developed rapidly. In 1897 there were sixty-five canneries in British Columbia, and the salmon packed amounted to 50,000,000 pounds, valued at \$5,000,000. Salmon canning is also an important industry on the Columbia River and in Alaska. The other deep sea fish, the halibut and cod, are caught principally in the northern waters and shipped fresh to market. The herring, oolachan, smelt and sardine belong to the salmon family, and come in immense numbers, and like the salmon run up the rivers to spawn at certain seasons. The principal fish of the rivers and lakes are trout, and in some of the lakes are land-locked salmon and a species of white fish. Sturgeon of immense size are found in the Fraser and other rivers. The total value of the fisheries in 1897 was over \$6,000,000.

Sealing was formerly an important industry but it has declined, owing to the trouble with the United States and Russia over the sealing in Bering Sea and on the Asiatic Coast. At one time there were fifty-five sealing vessels in Victoria engaged in catching seals, the skins of which were shipped to England and sold at high prices.

Forests.—Timber is another great resource of the Province. Along the Coast, where the climate is more humid, and on Vancouver Island and many of the islands of the Coast, there is a very dense forest growth, and the trees attain immense size. In the interior, where it is drier, the trees are not so large, but all along the river banks, the lakes, and many of the mountain sides there are large forest areas. The principal tree of commerce in British Columbia is the Douglas fir, also called the Oregon pine. It is of the same family as the fir and spruce, and was called after a celebrated botanist, David Douglas, who travelled in British Columbia about 1820. It is as heavy and strong as oak, and is the best and strongest of all the woods for heavy construction work. The other important trees are the red and the yellow cedar, or cypress, the spruce, hemlock, and white pine—all valuable for lumber and found in greatest perfection near the Coast; but cedar is the most useful tree and is made into shingles, finishing lumber and used for a variety of other purposes. The settler constructs his "shack" out of cedar by splitting

it into boards, and the Indian builds his canoe of it, and even the roots are very useful, for the natives make blankets and many other things out of them. White pine and spruce are scarcer but exceedingly useful for all lighter carpenter and cabinet work. In the interior are Douglas fir, black spruce, cedar, tamarack and Bull pine. Of the leafy or deciduous trees there are maple, alder, arbutus, birch, cotton, cherry, willow and crab apple. The deciduous trees, though limited in quantity, are used as finishing woods. In the vicinity of Victoria there are also oak trees, which, though picturesque in appearance, are of little commercial value. A large number of saw mills have been erected throughout the province and some of the larger ones on the Coast cut and sell for foreign markets. The lumber is taken in sailing vessels to China, Australia, South America, Great Britain and elsewhere. Wood-pulp is used for making paper and its manufacture is extensively carried on in Eastern Canada; and the manufacture of pulp out of such woods as spruce and cotton wood is another industry that is likely to be developed in this province.

Agriculture.—Agriculture completes the list of natural resources with which we have to deal. Numerous tracts of good arable land exist throughout the province. These have been formed in river basins, the beds of dried-up lakes, and in deltas at the mouths of rivers. In the interior there are long stretches of pastoral or grazing land, besides many valleys of excellent bottom land, on which wheat, barley, oats and hay grow to perfection. Stock-raising is the principal industry of the interior, but mixed farming and fruit-growing are rapidly becoming important. In the central plateau, especially to the north, are large areas still unsettled. In the Coast districts farming lands are in smaller tracts, but are very fertile, notably the bottom lands. Wheat is not grown to any great extent on account of the moist climate, but oats, barley and hay do exceedingly well. Certain fruits, such as pears, cherries, apples and plums, and all small fruits are very prolific. Such fruits as peaches, grapes, melons and tomatoes, which require more heat, do better in the southern interior, although all fruits of the temperate zone can be grown everywhere. Grasses are very luxuriant, and flowers, shrubs and ornamental trees flourish.

Animals.—A most interesting department of study is the land fauna, or animal life, for this is a country of large animals and big fish. At the Provincial Museum numerous specimens have been collected. The majestic moose of the north, the stately elk of Vancouver Island,

the massive and terrible grizzly of the mountains, the black and the brown bears common everywhere, the silent wood wolf, the stealthy mountain lion, also called the panther, or cougar, the picturesque mountain sheep, and the homely and lonely-looking mountain goat, the graceful black and white tail deer, the sly fox, the yelping coyote of the interior, the busy marmot, the playful raccoon, the wild cat, the wolverine, the fur-bearing mink, otter and beaver, now becoming scarce, the bristling porcupine, the pert chipmunk, the squirrel, the huge walrus, the roaring sea lion of the northern ocean, and the isolated musk ox of the barren lands—these and many others are grouped in life-like posture. There are also many varieties of land and sea birds, grouse, pheasants, wild ducks, geese, swans, pelicans, heron, woodpeckers, etc., great and small, which belong to our province or frequent it. It is a rare country for the sportsman as well as the student of nature, and although the larger game is yearly getting scarcer, the zest of the true hunter is all the greater on that account. It should be our object to spare for future generations these splendid specimens of wild animals, which, like the buffalo of the plains, may otherwise become extinct.

Cities and Towns.—**Victoria**, the capital of the Province, has a population of over 25,000, and is situated on the south-east corner of Vancouver Island overlooking the Straits of Fuca, that connect the Gulf of Georgia and the Ocean. It is a place of great natural beauty, and has fine public buildings and many delightful residences. Situated favorably for shipping, it has a large ocean and coast trade.

Vancouver, on Burrard Inlet, is the terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway and of the Trans-Pacific Steamship lines. It is naturally a city of commercial importance, and has grown very rapidly since it was founded in 1885, and has now a population of over 55,000.

Twelve miles from Vancouver, near the mouth of the Fraser River, is situated **New Westminster**, the centre of the agricultural districts of the Fraser Valley and the headquarters of the fishing industry of that river. It was the capital of the old colony of British Columbia and has a population of about 8,000.

On Vancouver Island, directly opposite Vancouver City and thirty-five miles distant, is **Nanaimo**, the centre of the coal mining industry, upon which it largely depends. It has a population of about 7,000.

Kamloops, at the junction of the North and South Thompson Rivers, is pleasantly situated and is

the centre for that section of Yale. It is noted as a health resort.

Vernon, in the Okanagan Valley, has a picturesque location on Okanagan Lake, and is surrounded by one of the best agricultural districts in the province.

Nelson, at the head of the western arm of Kootenay Lake, is regarded as the commercial centre of the southern interior of British Columbia. It was founded in 1889, as the result of mining discoveries, and has made very substantial progress ever since.

Rossland, twelve miles up the Trail Creek, a tributary of the Columbia, is the largest and most important mining town in the Kootenays. The LeRoi, War Eagle, and other large mines are in its immediate vicinity.

Trail, at the junction of Trail Creek and the Columbia River, is the headquarters of the Columbia and Western Railway, and has a very large smelter where the ores of the southern interior are treated.

Revelstoke, on the Columbia River, is the point at which traffic is diverted from the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway to the south, and is a growing town.

Fernie, near the Crowsnest Pass, is a coal mining town and has also a large number of coke ovens.

Kaslo, situated on Kootenay Lake, is the point from which the Kaslo and Slocan Railway enters the Slocan mining district.

Many other smaller places are rapidly growing up. On the Island are such places as Cumberland, Wellington, Ladysmith and Duncan. In the Westminster District there is the town of Steveston, an important fishing place, and Ladner's Landing and Chilliwack. On the main line of the C.P.R. are Yale, Ashcroft and Golden. In southern Yale are Princeton, Fairview and Kelowna. In the Boundary District are Greenwood, Grand Forks, Phoenix, Midway and Cascade. In West Kootenay are Sandon, New Denver, Ymir and Ainsworth. In East Kootenay are Cranbrook and Steele. Northward on the Coast are Alert Bay, Essington and Port Simpson. The new towns of Atlin and Bennett are at the extreme north-west of the province.

The Yukon.—The Yukon is the territory north of British Columbia extending from the 60th parallel to the Arctic Ocean. To the east lies the Valley of the Mackenzie and to the west the territory of Alaska, from which it is separated by an almost impenetrable range of mountains. The Canadian Yukon District comprises an area of about 192,000 square miles. In the greater

part of this district is included the watershed of the Yukon River itself, which takes its rise in British Columbia.

The territory as a whole, being part of the Rocky Mountain system, is mountainous and in a general way is a continuation on a smaller scale of the main features of Northern British Columbia. The mountain ranges, however, gradually converge towards the north until they merge into each other, broadening out into one large undulating area. Besides these mountains it comprises important stretches of gently rolling country and many wide, flat river valleys. The Yukon basin is drained by three great river systems. Its waters reach the Pacific by the Stikine, the Arctic by the Liard and its branches which empty into the Mackenzie, and the Bering Sea by the Yukon River. The valleys and lower tracts of country are filled or covered by extensive deposits of boulder clay, gravel, sand and silt. Lying so far to the north within the Arctic Circle the summer season is short and the climate is subject to extremes of heat and cold. The great value of the country lies in the minerals, principally in gold, which was discovered in great quantities in 1896-1897. This discovery created much excitement, and adventurers from all quarters rushed into the Yukon, just as they did years ago into Australia, California and Cariboo.

Prospectors first entered in 1878, and prior to the rush to the Klondike a number of miners had obtained

gold at Forty-Mile River on the American side of the line. The centre of population, however, was removed to Dawson on the Yukon just below the confluence of the Klondike River. This rapidly became a large city and is still the chief commercial centre of that district. To maintain law and order the North-West Mounted Police were sent in, and a legal administration with Courts and Judges and other necessary organizations was established. The country from the southern boundary line contains minerals throughout, and copper, iron and coal, as well as gold, have been discovered. The Klondike gold fields comprise an area of about 800 square miles. The streams flowing through this district are all gold-bearing, the most important of which are Bonanza, Eldorado, Bear and Hunker Creeks, flowing into the Klondike; and Quartz, Dominion, Gold Run and Sulphur Creeks, flowing into the Indian River. From these creeks have been taken immense amounts of gold which are reported from time to time as coming from the Yukon.

The discovery of gold in the Klondike has opened up an important trade for the Coast Cities of British Columbia and those of the United States. Large numbers of those who went to Dawson spread throughout the whole northern country, many entering British Columbia and Alaska, and new discoveries such as at Atlin in British Columbia, and Nome in Alaska have resulted.

